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STEAD'S

MARCH 6, 1920

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DO THE DEAD RETURN?
CONAN DOYLE ANSWERED

IN THE HOLDSWORTHY
CONCENTRATION CAMP
WHEN INFLUENZA RAGED

WAR IN THE BALKANS
NOW IMMINENT

From Cartoon in
"WORLD" London

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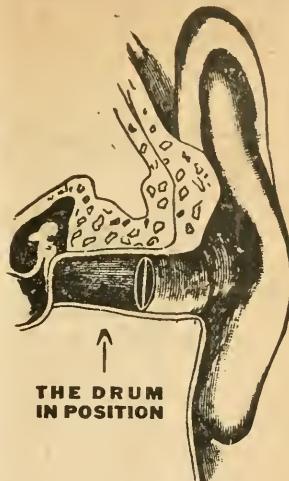
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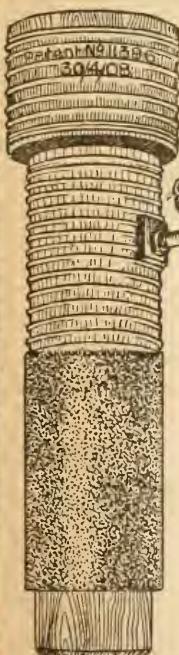
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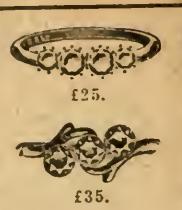
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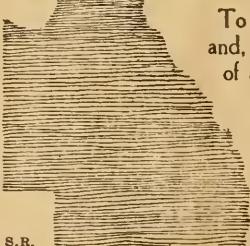
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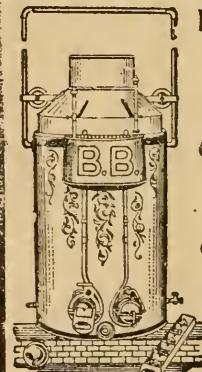
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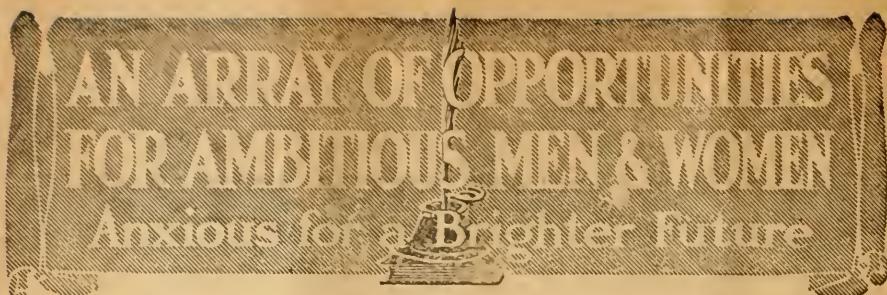
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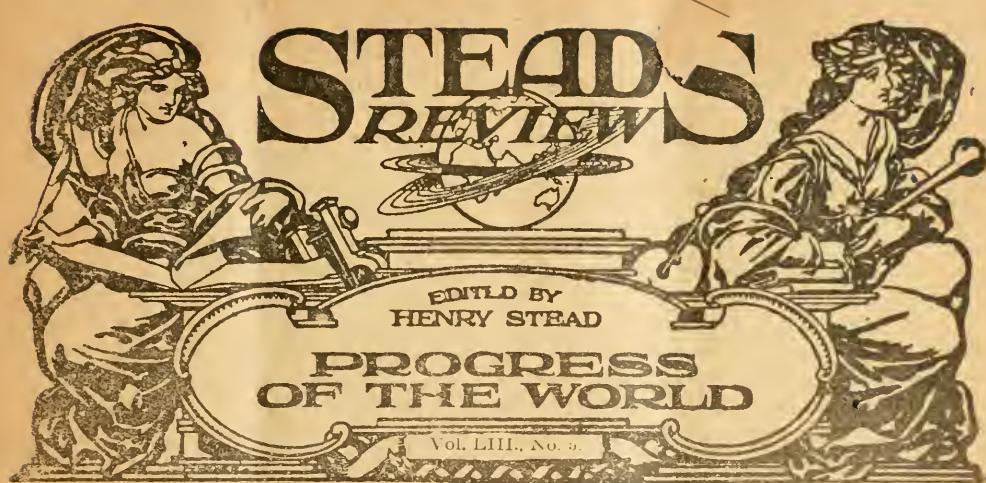
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TO OUR READERS.

Owing to the Printers' Strike, great difficulty has been encountered in bringing out this issue of STEAD'S. It is not only late, but, to get it published at all, it has been necessary to omit several features in order to reduce the amount of machining required. Very little setting, too, could be done, consequently the "Progress" has had to be curtailed, and instead of occupying the usual twelve pages, it is confined to six. Norman Angell's comments on the present chaos in Europe, Professor Meredith Atkinson's article on "The Sovereign and World Exchange," and several pages of Cartoons have had to be held over until our next issue, which will be enlarged by the number of pages which have had to be omitted from the present one. We hope to publish the next number on March 20. but if the strike continues it may, like this issue, be somewhat delayed.

MARCH 1, 1920.

Three Epoch-Making Happenings.

Having to condense my comments on world happenings into six pages, I have thought it wise to deal only with the three outstanding occurrences in Europe, and the probable effect they will have on the world settlement. The alternative was to touch very briefly on general events, which would be too much like a summary of newspaper cables to be of much interest to my readers. The three most important happenings of the last two weeks are—(1) The dramatic intervention of President Wilson in the Adriatic "settlement." (2) The resumption of relations with the Bolsheviks of Russia. (3) The decision to leave the

Turks in possession of Constantinople. Each of these three has direct bearing on the future peace of the world. If President Wilson's voice is not hearkened to, and the "settlement" depriving the Jugo-Slavs of a useful outlet to the Adriatic be persisted in there will be war in the Balkans this year in all probability. If the Turk is left in Europe, he will remain in a position which will enable him to continue playing off one Power against the other, as in former days—will, that is to say, be able to foment endless trouble in Europe indefinitely—or, at any rate, until the Russians take over Constantinople, which they can hardly do without another war. The

practical confession of defeat made by Lord Curzon in his despatch to the Bolshevik Government, and, more particularly, the resumption of close trade and economic relations between Russia and Germany, is perhaps the most epoch-making event of the three. It may well mean the tearing up of the Treaty, or, at any rate, its drastic modification, as an understanding between the Republic of Germany and of Russia would create a new balance of power in Europe, in which the Entente powers would be almost as badly outweighed as are the Teutonic Powers at the present moment. Thus, whilst the Adriatic settlement threatens to put a torch to the Balkans, and the retention of the Turk at Constantinople promises endless trouble in the future, the Russo-German rapprochement may well alter the enter-Entente scheme of European settlement.

The Turk to Stay in Constantinople.

Those who took Allied protestations at their face value, must indeed be amazed at the decision of the Supreme Council to allow the Sultan and his Government to remain in Constantinople. What about the emphatic declarations ament the Turk being hurled neck and crop out of Europe, which he had polluted too long? What about the loud promises that never again should his blighting yoke fall on the necks of his subject peoples? What about his brutal massacres and cold-blooded attempts to exterminate the Armenian race? Are all these promises and declarations and protestations so many serabs of paper? Is the Turk, after all, to be left in Constantinople to continue his massacres unhindered, to blight the subject races as before? Apparently he is to remain in Europe, is certainly carrying on massacres with impunity, is still top dog in Armenia. Why, after so soundly thrashing him, do the Allies permit this, is a very natural question, and one which is being asked on every side.

Scraping Allied Promises.

It is not at all difficult to answer it. First of all, none who had studied European history, and knew anything of European diplomacy, was deceived for a moment by all the promises and protestations of Allied leaders concerning Turkey, or, indeed, concerning anything. It was necessary to convince the people of all countries that they were fighting for great ideals, and therefore the statesmen on both sides vigorously protested their determination not to sheath the sword until all manner of wonderful things

had been achieved. All this was, of course, quite right and proper, and it succeeded in its object, for the bulk of the people believed absolutely what they were told. The Allied populations were positive that they fought to destroy militarism, to defend democracy, for the rights of small nations, for the liberation of subject races, and so on and so forth, and the Teutonic peoples were equally sure that they fought to preserve their countries from envious foes who were determined to crush them and wrest from them that trade and commerce which, by peaceful means, they had altogether failed to do. It mattered nothing to the people of England and of Australia that, in fighting militarism and for the safety of democracy, they were allied to Russia, the most militaristic and autocratic country in the world, whose treatment of subject races was infinitely worse than that of the Teutonic Powers! During the war most folks accepted Allied promises as being quite genuine, not as being the opportunist statements of the highly respectable but "very wicked old men" who have run Europe diplomatically for centuries. Having given them a value far above what they were actually worth, people are correspondingly distressed when they come to be discounted.

British Fear of Russia.

The British position towards Turkey has always been quite understandable. Fear of Russia dictated a policy of friendship towards her bitter enemy. To block the Russians from obtaining access to the warm seas, it was only necessary to bolster up the Sultan, who held the entrance to the Euxine and barred the way to the Persian Gulf. It mattered not that British eye witnesses demanded his punishment for atrocious massacres, that his blighting influence was everywhere apparent in the territory over which he held sway. The Turk was a necessary corner-stone in the anti-Russian edifice, and therefore, no matter what he did, he could count on the support of the British Government. True, strong protests were made by the British Ambassador, but the Sublime Porte knew quite as well as Downing-street that there would be nothing more than protests. These quietened the clamour against the murderers of Armenians and other Christians which at times waxed embarrassingly loud in Great Britain. As long as the British Government feared Russia, so long was the Turk secure. When, however, that fear gave place to a mutual understanding,

the very existence of Turkey was threatened, and, when finally war broke out, it was inevitable that the Turks would side with the Germans rather than with their ancient friend, now in close alliance with their most dreaded enemy, whose intention of seizing Constantinople was, more or less, frankly admitted.

No one Wants to Bell the Cat.

It was whilst allied with Russia that the majority of those fervent promises about sweeping the Turk out of Europe were made by British statesmen. The recent emergence of Russia as a powerful factor to be reckoned with has thrown Great Britain back to her old position, and the Turk becomes again a necessary ally in opposing Russian expansion. Whilst that is the main reason for the British "volte face," there are others which were easy enough to foresee. It was clearly a most difficult business to internationalise Constantinople. No one Power was going to get anything out of it, it was merely police work, and costly police work too. Obviously neither France nor Great Britain wanted the job, so they suggested that the United States should take it on. America was, after all, the only really disinterested country that had fought—the only one which sought to get nothing out of the victory—let her take charge of Constantinople, and see about protecting the Armenians! America, however, has plainly no intention of taking any share in the European re-arrangement. It is worth noting, by-the-way, that her help is only being sought in cases where such intervention would be wholly altruistic and unremunerative. There is no suggestion whatever that the Americans should take over Mesopotamia or Syria, should occupy the Rhine Provinces or take charge of German colonies. Britain and France do not object to assuming these heavy responsibilities—which add great districts to their domains and pay them handsomely—but they declare that they cannot, in addition, safeguard the Armenians, who hope to own their country themselves or take over Constantinople, which will become a bone of contention between Russia, Roumania, Greece and Bulgaria.

A Subtle Excuse!

As a way out of the difficulty, they propose to leave the Sultan in Stamboul, and let the Armenians take care of themselves. But it was, of course, necessary to find some more or less valid excuse to give the duped people

for breaking the solemn promises made during the war. Lloyd George therefore made the announcement in Parliament that it was unwise to force the Sultan to go to Konieh, in Asia Minor, where, surrounded by a fanatical population, he could organise massacres without interference. Far better to let him remain in Constantinople under the guns of an Allied fleet. In short, according to the Prime Minister in 1920, it was advisable to keep the Sultan in Constantinople where he was get-at-able, although, in 1916, the same statesman was all for bundling him neck and crop out of Europe. It is by no means a bad argument, were it not for the fact that massacres, ordered before from Constantinople, had been thoroughly carried out, although it was as easy to "get at" the Sultan then as it will be in future if he remains in Europe. He enjoyed immunity then because of the skill with which he played off one Great Power against another, and, in future, he will enjoy a similar immunity for the same reason. Under the circumstances, Lloyd George's excuse is quite clever, but it refers not at all to the real reasons why the sick man of Europe is to be allowed to remain in his old capital. Still, it will no doubt be regarded as offering complete justification for scrapping previous promises.

Turkey—nominally—to have no Control.

Lloyd George assured his hearers that, although the Turk was to be left in Constantinople, he was to be entirely deprived of the control of the passage into the Black Sea. All forts are to be dismantled, and Gallipoli is to be held by a small international garrison. That suggests that one of the main objects for the expulsion of the Turk was being achieved, even though he was not expelled. Clearly, though the Turks left in control of the Sea of Marmora and the Bosphorus, could easily wipe out this international police force and quickly make the passage through the Black Sea impassable, if it were in their interests so to do. Let us suppose, for instance, that some years hence Great Britain became involved in war with Russia, there would be nothing to prevent Russian submarines and torpedo boat destroyers from using a properly internationalised Dardanelles Channel as freely as they wished to. Such use would be denied them if a Turkey friendly to England, or, at any rate, bitterly hostile to Russia, retains possession of Constantinople. The defeat of Turkey has given Great Britain Egypt,

Cyprus, Palestine and Mesopotamia; it has given France Syria; it has given Italy the islands she solemnly covenanted to return to the Porte after the Tripoli War, and has also given her coastal districts of Asia Minor. Greece, as a result of the Allies' victory, is in possession of Smyrna and its hinterland and of some small Aegean Islands.

Possibly the Best Solution.

Having wrested from the Turks their fairest possessions, why should the Allies worry about Constantinople, which city they dare not hand over to any one of themselves? Italy would rather have the Turk there than the Greek, so, too, would the Roumanian. Great Britain, in her new-found fear of Russia, would go to great lengths to keep Russia's traditional enemy on the Golden Horn. French investors are far more likely to get their money back if the Turk is left in Constantinople than if he is banished altogether from Europe. Although there are co-tributary reasons, the main cause why the Sultan will remain at Yıldız Kiosk is because, if he is there, no other power can get possession of Constantinople. Whilst personally I consider that the Turk ought to be bundled out of Europe altogether, it may well be that to leave him there is, after all, the best solution of an exceedingly difficult problem. This solution, though, gives a splendid example of the true value of statements and promises made during the war. For the most part, these were purely opportunist, their sole object being to convince the people they were fighting for great principles and the future peace of the world, not for vindictive indemnities, great territories and world markets. The leaving of the Turk in Europe and the abandonment of the Armenians are flagrant examples of broken promises. The mistake was, of course, that people took these far too seriously at the time.

Wilson Comes Back.

All sorts of decisions are being made in vital matters concerning the rearrangement of Europe, but the public remains in entire ignorance of these until some unforeseen occurrence makes further secrecy impossible. Only President Wilson's intervention has compelled the admission that, without consulting America, Great Britain, France and Italy had arrived at a settlement of the Fiume difficulty, which apparently deprives the unfortunate Jugo-Slavs of all access to the sea for the time being. To meet their natural demands, however, it would seem

that some notable alterations in Albania frontiers have been made with the object of giving them a harbour which, later on, could be linked up with Serbia by a railway. We are left in ignorance as to what these alterations are, or what the attitude of the Albanians is towards this cutting up of their country! For a long time nothing had been heard from President Wilson, who was said to be so ill that he could not be consulted about European settlements. This silence was dramatically broken by the publication of a letter from him to Great Britain and France protesting against the proposed Fiume settlement, and declaring that the only arrangement he could agree to was that which had been arrived at between France, the United States and Great Britain in December. It is reported that, in his letter, the President went so far as to say that, unless the new agreement were revised, in accordance with the arrangement to which he had been a party, the United States would take no further share in the carrying out of the Treaty or the rearrangement of Europe.

Why Italy needs Fiume.

Many contradictory statements have appeared about this letter, but it seems clear that the President is determined to get Jugo-Slavia an outlet to the Adriatic, and that both Lloyd George and M. Millerand realise the need of American support in the heavy task before them. If they give way, then there will be trouble with Italy. If they do not, then there will be war in the Balkans. It is said that the Jugo-Slavs, under pressure, have agreed to the new settlement, but we may be perfectly certain that, knowing America is behind them, they will now insist upon that outlet to the sea, without which they are entirely dependent on Italy, or Greece, or Roumania. No reasonable person can deny that the claim of the Jugo-Slavs to Fiume, the only existing port on the Adriatic they could at once use, is well justified, even though the actual population of that city may be more Italian than Slav. Although the Italians claim Fiume on grounds of nationality, the underlying reason is commercial, as I pointed out long ago. Trieste was, before the war, the port through which the seaborn trade of Austria was carried on. At one time Hungarian exports overseas also went to Trieste, but Hungarian rivalry of Austria led to the development of Fiume, which was rapidly becoming a formidable competitor of the older seaport. Attracte

by the increasing trade of these two places, Italian shippers and merchants settled in them, and most of the business of the ports passed through their hands.

But although the Italians did the business, the whole trade of Trieste depended on Austria, and of Fiume on Hungary, and in lesser degree on Serbia. Austrians would certainly not use Trieste, held by the Italians who had robbed them of the place, when an even better harbour, not controlled by their enemies, was near at hand. They would use Fiume, so, too, would Greater Serbia and Hungary. It is the natural outlet of these two countries.

Trieste in Danger of Decay.

The Italians know perfectly well that Trieste, in their hands, must decay and cease to have any importance if it cannot secure the trade of its hinterland, and they know, also, that there is no chance of getting that trade if Fiume is in the possession of the Jugo-Slavs. It is perhaps not so much a wish to prevent the Serbs having any decent seaport that causes the Italians to demand Fiume, as a desire to prevent the ruin of Trieste which, if it had only Italian trade to rely on, would go the way of Venice and all other Italian ports on the Adriatic. The Jugo-Slavs, needing food, wanting financial assistance, desiring Allied help against Roumanian aggression, have evidently regarded it as hopeless to oppose the Allied settlement which deprived them of Fiume. Now, however, that America threatens to wash her hands of the Treaty obligations unless the understanding to which France and Great Britain came with the United States—to the effect that Fiume was to go to the Jugo-Slavs—is honoured, the Jugo-Slavs will hardly be so amenable to Allied pressure.

Can Wilson Enforce His Threats?

Italy is as dependent on America as the Jugo-Slavs are on the Allies, and will hardly risk an estrangement with the United States to save Trieste from ruin; but the Italian Government may well ask whether President Wilson can now speak for America, whether he has the power to say we will, or will not, do this, that and the other. Even if his threat of withdrawal forces the Allies to restore Fiume to the Jugo-Slavs, can he prevent the Senate from giving expression to the growing American feeling that Washington's advice, not to risk European entanglements, should be followed? Wilson is quite right to protest against the reversal of the Franco-

British-American decision concerning Fiume, and perfectly justified in insisting that the new state of Jugo-Slavia shall have a proper outlet to the sea, but can he induce the Senate to carry out the threats he makes even though these are being employed to right a crying wrong? There is no doubt, of course, that in thus standing up for a small nation, which is being sacrificed on the altar of political expediency by the Entente Powers, Wilson will have the cordial support of all Americans, and that is a factor which must not be overlooked in estimating how far the President is actually able to commit the United States.

Bolsheviks not to be Recognised.

The Bolsheviks continue to triumph on every front in Russia. Their latest achievement is to capture Murmansk, the ice-free port on the Arctic Sea, which was connected with Petrograd by rail during the war, thanks to enterprising American engineers. They have also occupied Archangel, abandoned by the Allies. The correspondence which preceded the evacuation was most extraordinary when we remember the fervent declarations that never would we treat with this blood-stained Bolshevik Government, and read the announcement of the Allies' decision to have no dealings with it. This announcement, by the way, will cause much cynical comment the world over. It states: "The Allies have decided that they are unable to enter into diplomatic relations with Soviet Russia until they are convinced that the Bolshevik horrors have been ended, and that the Government is prepared to conform to the practice of civilised Governments." But it goes on, after thus expressing its fixed determinations not to recognise this government, "Meanwhile the Allies are willing to encourage the utmost commerce between Russia and Europe!" That is to say: "Officially we must maintain our attitude of horror towards you, will not speak to you, but as we want many things you have got to sell, you may leave them on the door-step, and when you are not officially looking, we will take them away and leave the money!"

An Extraordinary Correspondence.

The day after this decision of the Allies is printed in the papers, the Note of the British Minister of Foreign Affairs to the Bolshevik Minister, holding the same office in Russia, appears. It reads: "The Government of Northern Russia has decided that it is unable to continue the fight against the

Soviet, and offers to surrender Archangel. General Miller requests me to transmit his request that when the town passes into Soviet hands, no violence should be made against the propertied classes or the property of the population. It would create a painful impression in Great Britain if the Soviet imposed severe repression on the population." To this polite request, addressed to a Government which the Allies had decided not to recognise because of its crimes, M. Chicherin, the Bolshevik Minister in question, replied: "All northern regions, including the Karelia-Murman region and the coast, must be surrendered, and also military stores, arms and munitions. The personal safety will be guaranteed of all members of the army and members of the so-called Northern Government, who will be allowed to leave Russia." Hardly the humble answer the Allies might have expected to their first diplomatic request, addressed to an unrecognised and assumedly criminal Government. We can hardly wonder, after reading Lord Curzon's despatch, that Lenin speaks of victorious Bolsheviks and defeated Allies!

General Gough Urges Recognition.

Meanwhile, Sir Hubert Gough and other leading members of British missions which have been in Russia, are saying things which must make those who have been so energetically engaged in anti-Bolshevik propaganda, exceedingly annoyed. First of all, they say that the Koltchak and Denekine Governments were not superior to that of the Bolsheviks in humanity, whilst as regards energy, union and resource, they were much inferior. They, however, presented a memorial to Mr. Lloyd George urging the recognition of the "Soviet" Government—that sounds better than the usual "Bolshevik" Government—in which they declare that past crimes should not be a bar to present recognition. They hold that the resources of Russia cannot become available until the conclusion of a general peace, and add that if Great Britain delays in resuming relations with Russia, she will instal Germany in a privileged position in Russia, and Russian policy will take on an anti-British character. Coming from such high authorities, notice will, no doubt, be taken of the memorial, but it hardly fits in with what we have been told about Bolshevik horrors and Denekine's and Koltchak's liberating armies.

Russians will be Anti-British.

Surely it is a little late in the day to talk

about the danger of the Russians becoming anti-British and anti-French. Ever since Lenin won to power the Allies have been endeavoring to overthrow him by every means at their disposal. They gave his enemies financial support, supplied them with ammunition, and tanks, and guns; lent them officers and even sent troops to their assistance. They organised a vast anti-Bolshevik propaganda, which disseminated the wildest sort of lies, which were believed in Allied countries just as the stories about corpse factories, tuberculosis inoculations and other fairy tales about Germany and the Germans were believed during the war. Even now, when the truth about many of the doings of the Bolsheviks, which were distorted and exaggerated, is becoming known, people refuse to believe it. We have heaped every sort of insult on the Bolshevik Government; we have branded it as inhuman, bloodthirsty, inefficient, ruling by the help of Chinese cut-throats, if members, corrupt to the last degree, wrecking private vengeance on all and sundry. We have bolstered up every uprising against the Lenin regime, have supported those who would restore the old system of government; have blockaded Russia and prevented her from getting the supplies which would have saved thousands in the big cities from death by starvation, and then we talk of the danger of the Russians being anti-British!

We Backed the Wrong Horse!

We backed the wrong horse, and we will have to pay the penalty. By our attempt to defeat the revolutionaries, and restore the old gang, we forced the Russian Government into the arms of Germany. The result is that the Russians are going to the Germans for machinery, for drugs, for chemicals, for experts. Germany cannot buy raw material in the world's markets owing to the depreciation of the mark, and Russia cannot buy the supplies she needs abroad because of the depreciation of the rouble. But with mark and rouble equally depreciated, trade between Germany and Russia will be easy. That the Germans will seize the opportunity of getting raw materials, will jump at the chance of employment offered in Russia, is obvious. But how is this resumption of close relations between the two countries going to effect Europe and the Allies in particular? As I have already pointed out, it will mean the revision of the Peace Treaty, and an alteration in the balance of power wholly adverse to France, Great Britain and Italy.

HISTORY IN CARICATURE



• • • • • Oh wad some Power the giftie gie us
To see ousels as ither see us.—BURNS. E

It is now possible to obtain cartoons which are appearing in German, Austrian and Polish Journals, although even yet the supply is limited.

Some of the most significant caricatures are appearing in the Polish *Mucha*, which after a long sojourn in Moscow has returned to Warsaw. It harbours anything but a friendly spirit to Great Britain, as is shown by the two cartoons reproduced herewith; nor does it appear to have much admiration for Paderewski.



Kikeriki.]

[Vienna.

THE END OF THE WORLD DRAMA.
PEOPLE: "Hurrah! Hurrah!"



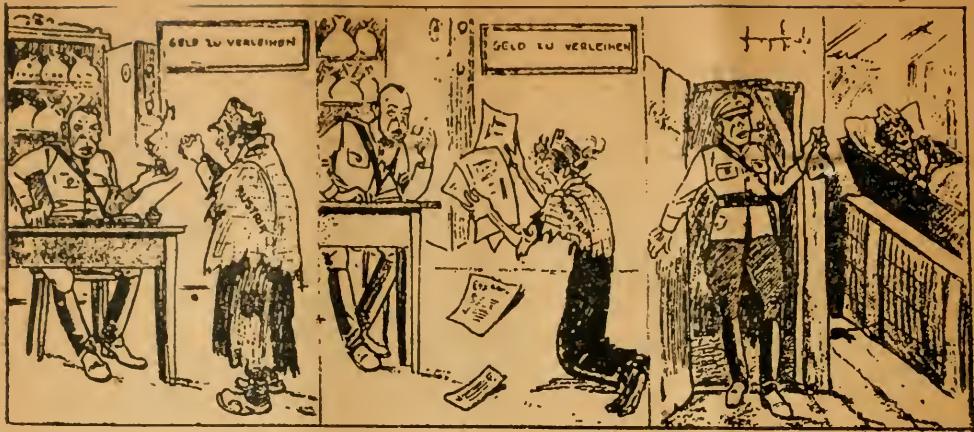
Mucha.] POLAND'S JOB. [Warsaw.

JOHN BULL (to France): "Come on! I won't have anything to do with anything which I don't control myself. Let's leave this Russian stew and charge the Pole with keeping the pot boiling."



Mucha.] THE WARSAW ALCHEMIST. [Warsaw.

PADEREWSKI (reconstructing his Cabinet): "By virtue of this operation I can retain my glory and my presidency. . . ."
DASZYNSKI: "Yes, but not for long."



Kikeriki.]

HOW THE ALLIES ARE HELPING AUSTRIA.

[Vienna.

(1) "I beg a loan."
"You must wait while I look into the matter."
"How long will that take?"
"A month."

(2) "Here are my last securities. Give me a loan, or I perish."

"First I must ascertain whether your securities are really worth anything. Come again in a fortnight."

(3) "Your securities are not first-class. However, here is your loan."

The Austrian papers all emphasise the fact that the starvation in Austria was being aggravated by the action of the Allies. They also deal scathingly with the profiteer.

Neutral papers see very little light in the gloom which has followed the making of peace.

The *Nieuwe Amsterdamer* in a cartoon issued before the blockade of Russia was lifted, draws a comparison between the treatment of Vienna and of Petrograd. It is interesting to notice that the Neutral papers have not adopted the later name for St. Petersburg.



Macna.]

[Warsaw.

JOHN BULL: "Where are you going?"
POLAND: "To the gates of my new estate, East Galicia awarded to me in Paris by three great Powers."

JOHN BULL: "But you won't get there. No one crosses a path which leads through my stomach."



[The Notenkraker.]

[Amsterdam.

CHRISTMAS, 1919.
"But the dove could find no place where it could rest."

DO THE DEAD RETURN?—III.

I have received many more letters on this subject, the majority being strongly opposed to any attempt whatever being made to communicate with those who have passed over. This on many grounds, the most usual being, however, that it is forbidden in the Bible. Some correspondents roundly assert that there can be no spirits of the departed about, because man, once dead, remains dead until the resurrection. That view, however, is held only by members of certain smaller sects—most of the others, the Anglicans and Roman Catholics, for instance, believe absolutely that a man's spirit goes on living after his body dies. The Anglican Bishop of Goulburn recently said that it took the war to establish what had hitherto been only accepted by devout Christians, viz., the undoubted nearness of the living to those who had passed beyond the vale. He, himself, he said, was absolutely convinced that there was in operation a mystic influence between the living and the dead.

On the whole there appears to be general conviction that the spirits of the departed do not die with the body, but have a continued existence, and it is not even denied that it may be possible to communicate with them in some cases. Most of my correspondents are, however, emphatic that it is altogether wrong to attempt to get into touch with them, chiefly because they hold such communication prohibited by Holy Writ. Of course others deny that the Bible is a Holy Book, and have no belief in any after life at all. Not a few write tell-

ing of experiences they have had which certainly suggest that determined attempts have been made by dear ones who have passed over to communicate.

I must confess that I have not the slightest doubt that the spirits of those who die continue to exist, do not remain indefinitely dormant, or disappear altogether. I am also convinced that such spirits have been able to enter into communication with living people by the limited means at their disposal, and that many folk have actually been able to get into touch with the departed. That is to say, I do believe that "the dead return" sometimes. What I am not so sure about is whether it is wise to attempt communication, either for their sakes or our own. It is a matter, though, on which I have a quite open mind.

Thinking that many of my readers are in the same state of mind as myself, I have decided to publish, in the next few numbers, the views of people on both sides, and make a beginning with an article criticising Sir Conan Doyle's conclusions, which has been sent me by Mr. C. F. Ronayne, whose scholastic and scientific attainments eminently fit him for such a task. I also print a letter from Mr. W. F. Barrass, whose conclusions have been arrived at after long and careful study of the whole matter. Most of those who have written me admittedly know very little personally about spiritualism, their objection to it being based not on the results of investigation, but on general principles. Mr. Barrass has at any rate taken the trouble to investigate before condemning.

CONAN DOYLE AND "THE NEW REVELATION."

By CHAS. F. RONAYNE, M.A., B.Sc.

In the presence of an agonised world, hearing every day of the deaths of the flower of our race in the first promise of their unfulfilled youth, seeing around one the wives and mothers who had no clear conception whether their loved ones had gone to, I seemed suddenly to see that this subject with which I had so long dallied was not merely the study of a force outside the rules of science, but

that it was really something tremendous, a breaking down of the walls between two worlds, a direct undeniable message from beyond, a call of hope and of guidance to the human race at the time of its deepest affliction. . . . A new revelation seemed to me in course of delivery to the human race, though how far it is still in what may be called the John-the-Baptist stage, and how far greater

fulness and clearness may be expected hereafter is more than any man can say.—Conan Doyle: *The New Revelation*.

In this enlightened age we are prone to lay the flattering unction to our souls that we live in a period of change and transformation, in a day of travail and sorrow indeed, but in a day none the less when a bad old order is disappearing before nobler and higher principles of human life. One of the many signs of this common tendency is the growing conviction that we are lifting from the dust of centuries the fallen standards of Christianity. Yet not quite the same torn flags. Not quite the same time-worn Christianity. For we flatter ourselves that we are verily a chosen generation. In these last bitter years of sorrow and of loss there has been vouchsafed us a new and growing creed. We have unwittingly found an ever-widening body of fresh doctrines. The veils of the unseen have been partially withdrawn, and we are witnessing the process of what its foremost apostles call the New Revelation, a revelation which, it is assumed, will destroy rather than fulfil the latent hopes and promises of the old faiths into which we were born.

The visitor to Paris knows the cemetery of Pere-Lachaise. It contains, among other notable graves, the graves of Leon Rivail, better known as Allan Kardec, who is described on his tombstone as "Fondateur de la Philosophie Spirite." He died in 1869. He professed to derive his philosophy from communications made to him by all sorts of illustrious spirits in the other world, and he expounded his teaching in many books, the best known of which, *Le Livre des Esprits*, had attained the dignity of a 52nd edition before the outbreak of the recent war. The revelation of which he was the mouthpiece was in direct and positive conflict with accepted forms of orthodox Christianity. It was to be the foundation of a natural religion which springs from the heart and goes straight to God without altar or priesthood or liturgy. It was to sweep away religion as it actually existed among men, for religion had become corrupted, and must be destroyed. It claimed to be iconoclastic of all superstition. It promised to destroy what were called the fungoid growths that have obscured

the lights of former revelations. It was to abolish the supernatural and to extend the realm of nature and the reign of law to the invisible world. In a word, it was to be not simply a reform, but verily a revolution.

Such have been the war-cries of Spiritualists for half a century. Such in fact are the claims put forward to-day by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle and by Sir Oliver Lodge, and by many others who burn with the warm enthusiasm of the New Message. In Doyle's own words, Christianity must perish or Christianity must change. And what is Christianity? What is this age-long creed in which the ordinary man finds imbedded his traditional rules of truth and justice and religion? What is this ancient Faith which, having seen materialism wax and wane, must now depart before the noisy heralds of a new revolt?

One must say a firm word respecting Christianity. I find numbers, even of the most intelligent and amiable people not knowing what the word means, because they are always asking how much is true and how much they like, and never ask, first, what was the total meaning of it, whether they like it or not. The total meaning was, and is, that the God Who made earth and its creatures, took at a certain time upon the earth the flesh and form of man; in that flesh sustained the pain and died the creature He had made; rose again after death unto glorious human life, and, when the date of the human race is ended, will return in visible human form and render to every man according to his work. Christianity is the belief in, and the love of, God thus manifested. Anything less than this—the mere acceptance of the sayings of Christ, or assertion of any less than divine power in His being, may be, for aught I know, enough for virtue, peace, and safety; but they do not make people Christians or enable them to understand the heart of the simplest believer in the old doctrine.—Ruskin: *Præterita*.

This is the religion which Spiritualists would destroy in favour of a cult more suited to the needs of our time. This is the Messianic revelation which the New Message is totally to supersede. For nearly nineteen centuries it has been a solid fact in the social life of a great portion of civilised humanity. Even now it may justly be said to be in possession, despite Conan Doyle's plaint of half-empty churches. For men accepting its principles it is surely not illogical to demand the credentials of the New Teaching, to examine whether or not it

is radically trustworthy, and to expect that it will respond to certain reasonable tests by which its assumed importance to humanity may be thoroughly tried. If on such examination it proves to be a true revelation as far as it goes, it is assuredly something to make us rejoice. If, on the other hand, its reaction to such an analytic test is unsatisfactory, then we must perforce hold fast that which we have, though as yet it only enables us to see as through a glass darkly.

Now a first test is the test of trustworthiness. We have the right to assess the credibility of the sources of the New Revelation. We demand that, in their claims to be believed, these sources shall be above suspicion of falsehood or of error. If the spirits are really the genuine prophets of a new message which has come to us, as Doyle asserts, *from divine sources*, then we are not asking too much if we lay down, as a first principle of our intercourse with them, the claim that they be truthful. Now, as a matter of simple fact, this test lamentably fails. No prominent spiritualist is so rash as to pledge himself to a thoroughgoing acceptance of every spirit-communication. Jencken (who married Katie Fox, the earliest medium of modern spiritualism), uttered as the verdict of many years' experience the sentence that "The vast majority of the messages given through strong physical mediumship are objectless lies." Even the enthusiastic Conan Doyle himself says in his chapter on the Problems and Limitations of the New Revelation that sometimes "we have unhappily to deal with absolute cold-blooded lying on the part of wicked or mischievous intelligences." It would be difficult to put this aspect of the case more forcibly than has been done by the rationalist, Richat, Professor of Physiology in the Paris Faculty of Medicine:—

Unfortunately for spiritism, an objection which seems to me irrefutable can be made to the spirits' teaching. In all parts of Europe the spirits vouch for reincarnation. Often they indicate the moment they are going to reappear in a human body; and they relate still more readily the past avatars of their followers. On the contrary, in England the spirits assure us that there is no reincarnation. The contradiction is formal, positive and irreconcilable. . . . How are we to form an opinion worthy of acceptance? Which speaks the truth? Europeans' spirits

or Anglo-Saxons' spirits. Probably spiritistic messages do not emanate from very well-informed witnesses. Such is the conclusion arrived at by Aksakoff, one of the cleverest and most enlightened of spiritists. He himself acknowledges that one is never certain of the communicating identity at a spiritistic sitting.—Preface to Eng. Tr. of Maxwell's *Les Phenomenes Psychiques*.

A second principle of criticism is that the content of the New Message, if it be, as Conan Doyle claims, *from divine sources*, may indeed simplify, but must not contradict the content of an earlier revelation. If what is called the New Revelation flatly contradicts a former revelation, it logically follows that either is false. For instance, if the spirit-communications result in positive contradictions of any essential part of the revelation made through Jesus Christ, then either the Christian Revelation is false or the so-called New Revelation is untrue. The slightest acquaintance with spiritualistic literature shows that such positive contradictions exist in abundance. One need not go beyond the pages of Conan Doyle's pamphlet for numerous examples. To take but one instance: the whole Christian religion is based upon the conviction of a primitive fall, and upon the "recognition of our human consciousness of the personal sense of sin. The life and death of Our Blessed Lord had, before and beyond everything else, a purpose of atonement and expiation. Now Conan Doyle, when treating of the points in which Christianity must be modified by the New Message, tells us:— ,

Many cannot understand such expressions as the "redemption from sin," "cleansed by the blood of the Lamb," and so forth. So long as there was any question of the fall of man there was at least some sort of explanation of such phrases; but when it became certain that man had never fallen—when with ever fuller knowledge we could trace our ancestral course down through the cave-man and the drift-man, back to that shadowy time when the man-like ape slowly evolved from the ape-like man—looking back on all this vast succession of life, we knew that it had always been rising from step to step. Never was there any evidence of a fall. But if there were no fall, then what became of the atonement, of the redemption, of original sin, of a large part of Christian mystical philosophy.—*The New Revelation*, pp. 71-72.

Here is a flat contradiction between the New Revelation and the Old Faith. How are we to judge between them? The readiest and most obvious method

is by the scientific canons which Conan Doyle himself has laid down. When he asserts that it has become certain as a scientific fact that man has never fallen, we wonder by what mental gymnastics anyone could suppose that a spiritual fact like a human soul's fall from divine grace could come within the experimental results of physical science. But, waiving that objection, we may confess our inability to follow him when he writes of the fuller knowledge by which we can trace the ancestral development of men back to that shadowy time of his evolution from the ape. His grandiloquent assertion is just one more example of these bold pronouncements, which are paraded before the half-educated as the absolutely certain findings of infallible science.

The truly scientific statement is that the Darwinian hypothesis of the evolution of man is at best but an assumption and nothing more. It has occasioned so much discussion among learned scientists, and has given rise to such diversity of opinion, that regarding its truth, nothing definite can be asserted with any degree of certainty. In the face of the adverse verdict of renowned scientists like Virchow, Branco, Ranks, Bummueller, Driesch, and a host of others, the pseudo-scientific talk in which Conan Doyle indulges is merely so much claptrap. But it is claptrap of a very dangerous kind. The contradiction, then, between the New Revelation and Christian creed resolves itself into the simplest question of the absolute certainty or not of the Darwinian theory; and in view of current scientific doubt on the matter none but the loud-voiced mountebanks of the market-place would venture to claim for the evolutionary hypothesis anything but what is due to it, namely, the consideration conventionally accorded to one of the working assumptions of biology. The words of Chesterton are but just when he says:—

Nothing can be, in the strictest sense of the word, more comic than to set so shadowy a thing as the conjectures made by the vaguer anthropologists about the primitive man against so solid a thing as the sense of sin. Science knows nothing whatever about prehistoric man, for the excellent reason that he is prehistoric. . . . There is no tradition of progress; but the whole human race has a tradition of a fall.—Orthodoxy.

The editorial limits of this article debar me from an adequate treatment of many other important aspects of this vaunted source of new knowledge. Space does not permit more than a passing reference to the dangers that the practice of spiritualism involves, or to the evils that often follow from it. Suffice it to say that leading scientists like Sir William Barrett, while insisting on the claims of science to study the phenomena, distinctly warn ordinary people against its perils. Notable indeed is the warning given us by Mrs. Travers Smith—whose name stands for what is best and most reliable in psychical research and several of whose researches have furnished striking results, especially the messages from Sir Hugh Lane, after the sinking of the *Lusitania*. As an Agnostic, or at best a Unitarian, she cannot be accused of being unduly partial to what Sir Oliver Lodge has called the ecclesiastical point of view. In her valuable book, *Voices from the Void*, she writes:—

If I may venture to advise persons who long to speak once more with those whom they have loved, who have vanished in darkness, I should say it is wise and sane not to make the attempt. The chances against genuine communication are ten to one; the disappointments and doubts connected with the experiment are great. Personally, I would not make any attempt to speak to the beloved dead through automatic writing of the ouija board. The evidence they offer of their identity is too ephemeral and unsatisfactory; and as I would not undertake these experiments for myself, I would not willingly help others to risk them.

Other spiritualists besides Mrs. Travers Smith have uttered their warnings and their protests. And ecclesiastical voices also have been lifted in grave admonition. Rome has spoken under date April 27th, 1917, through a decree of the Holy Office, wherein those who profess the Catholic Faith are forbidden to assist, even passively, at spiritualistic seances of all kinds whatsoever, however honest and pious such assemblies may seem to be. Although the official leaders of other ecclesiastical bodies have not yet given utterance to words of warning, we venture to take as a testimony of the ordinary conservative point of view these words of a serious thinker of our day:—

Another revolution which the war has effected is that the religion of Christ and the

doctrines of the Church, which were still sufficient to meet the needs of sorrow-laden souls, are now giving place to a spiritualism of "spooks" and "mediums," on whose scraggy and beggarly shakedown, not merely the bewildered, the stricken, the bereaved, are content to lie down in peace, calmly awaiting their death—but even the intellectuals as well. Is not this a strange topsy-turvydom? And would it not indeed be a theme for comedy, were it not so pathetic a tragedy? For consider, that the very Christianity which, when it came into the world, occupied itself largely in casting out these "spooks" and mediums, these sorcerers and necromancers—that this Christianity, I say, should, in its decadence, have so lost itself and its hold on the minds of men, that these mediums, from their superior pose and elevation, can now actually condescend to patronise it—going even so far as to suggest that if its old moribund leaves and branches could only be sprinkled by their

healing waters, it would revive in all its pristine vigour; and, like the old and "wappened widow," in Shakespeare's *Timon*, be spiced to the April day again! Is this not monstrous in this "so-called" twentieth century? No wonder that Father Vaughan, representing the Roman Catholic Church, should in his disgust, on seeing Protestants lying low under this degradation, feel in his cheek a blush of shame! To me, as an outsider, there seems, I confess, something in the continuous tradition of the old original Church after all!—John Beattie Crozier, LL.D., in *Last Words on Great Issues*.

Fain would one believe that such grave words as these express the sentiments of the earnest and the devout who, for the sake of all that is best in our Christian heritage, fret themselves because of the ungodly.

AN INVESTIGATOR'S CONCLUSIONS.

Sir,—Spiritualism is a subject which I have studied earnestly. I commenced by obtaining from spiritualistic friends what they recommended as the most convincing books on their philosophy. I have read also all the psychic literature, both periodical and other, to which I could get access, with a view of forming an impartial opinion on this perplexing but fascinating subject. I therefore venture to submit to you my views thereon.

As the outstanding result of my enquiries, I would set down the total absence of any really satisfying, scientific proof of the cause of psychic phenomena. That there is a mass of genuine phenomena cannot be gainsaid, even after making the largest possible deduction for fraud or illusion. But I am convinced that spiritualists are mistaken in attributing the phenomena to discarnate departed intelligences. That is, they are wrong in the interpretation of their facts. I submit that there are no so-called "spiritualistic" phenomena—clairvoyance, clairaudience, levitation, prescience, etc. — which cannot be matched by phenomena which can be shown to have been produced exclusively by living intelligences. In support of this, I commend to you a book recently published by Dr. Quackenbos, of New York (*Body and Spirit: An Inquiry into the Sub-Conscious, based on 12,000 Experiences in the Author's Practice*).

This investigator, after twenty-five years' scientific study, believes that

"spirit return" has never been proved. He postulates that there is in each one of us an inner immaterial being not under constraint to obey conditions imposed by our physical organisms, but capable of perceiving and acting through means peculiarly its own. "The powers of this personality are often exercised in spite of, rather than by the aid of, the material organism. Time and space offer no obstruction, matter is penetrable, perceptive power becomes infinitely sublimed."

He holds that the action of this soul-force "satisfactorily explains self-projection along the lines of prevision, clairvoyance, thought transference, telepathic interaction, X-ray vision, and other transcendent faculties of the human personality. Surely there is no need of flying to the supernatural for what the supernormal, and, hence, the psychological, satisfactorily accounts for. We are indeed more richly endowed, more supereminently puissant, than we know."

He gives instances to prove that "this higher self is gifted with supernormal powers of apprehension and control, with susceptibility to other human selves through telepathic interaction, with levitative force counter to gravity; and with a measure of prescience that on occasion may forecast what is to be."

"Ghost stories and extraordinary psychic phenomena, ordinarily adjudged either as illusions or as involving the in-

tervention of post-mortem spirits, may be explained psychologically, and hence are divested of all supernatural import."

I believe that the cardinal weaknesses of Spiritualists are: (1) Yielding their minds to the influences of the seance, so that by the operation of subtle mental laws they are deprived of the power to exercise their critical faculties on this

subject; (2) Prostrating themselves before the authority of great names (Lodge, Lombroso, Doyle, and others appear on almost every page of contemporary spiritualistic literature). They forget that these men are just as liable to be mistaken in this as other greater historical personages are proved to have been in other matters.—W. F. BARRASS.

40,000,000 TIRES A YEAR.

Six years ago the United States imported 51,000 tons of crude rubber; three years later, in 1917, it imported no fewer than 167,000 tons. In the year before the war 54 per cent. of this crude rubber was of the wild variety, and 46 per cent. was plantation rubber. In 1918 85 per cent. of the total sum was plantation rubber against 15 per cent. wild. This is a very significant fact, and shows that the supply of rubber is no longer a gamble, but is as certainly assured as that of sugar and coal. This and many other interesting particulars concerning the tire industry, are given by James N. Gunn in *The Motor*, published in New York. He mentions that whilst during the war, and to some extent before the war broke out, there was considerable difficulty in obtaining rubber. This is now available to cover any possible demand, although it is costing 50 cents per lb. But whilst there is no danger of rubber shortage, several tire manufacturers, he says, are worried over the cotton situation.

It is no light task to obtain a sufficient quantity of the long staple cotton, needed for our present enormous production of automobile tires. It is easily conceivable that a time may presently come when the world will find itself faced by a serious cotton shortage, and this is every tire man's principal worry to-day. In the meantime the price of cotton has advanced until now tire fabric costs over 1.50 dols. a pound.

The tire industry has of course kept pace with the automobile industry, and Mr. Gunn gives the following figures concerning the present production in the United States:—

The first statistics which we find in this connection are the Government census figures for 1914, and these show that during the year mentioned there were turned out 8,021,371 cas-

ings. For 1915 we have no official figures, but a reasonable estimate places the total output of tires at approximately 12,000,000. In 1916 production rose to 18,000,000 casings, and 1917 showed the inspiring total of 25,835,573. Partial figures for 1918 indicate that the total for the year was 21,600,000.

He makes an interesting comparison between the consumption of crude rubber in America and Great Britain, her chief competitor. In 1906 only 24,113 tons of rubber were imported into the United States, Great Britain during the same twelve months getting 13,838 tons. In 1917, whilst America was getting 157,000 tons, Great Britain got only 25,983 tons. This is, however, hardly a fair comparison, in view of the fact that Great Britain was concentrating her energies on the production of war materials, whereas the United States did not need to do so.

Mr. Gunn does not think that the efficiency of tires will be greatly increased.

Tires to-day are giving an average of 5000 miles of service, as is proved by the production per annum. They would give far more mileage than that if the average car owner conscientiously gave them the care they need. It is no uncommon thing for the big tire companies to receive pictures of casings which have given 25,000 and 30,000 miles of service, simply because they were properly cared for by their owners. The ultimate in tire wear is rather a question of education of the car owner than of improvements in manufacture, though we have every right to look for that development as well.

The outstanding feature in the tire building art, says Mr. Gunn, has been the rise of the cord tire, and he holds that the demonstrated superiority of this type of construction will undoubtedly have a far-reaching effect on the future of tire manufacturing. With regard to quantities, he says:—

We know that the average annual consumption of tires is five per vehicle, and that the average consumption of tubes is somewhat over five. With this information in hand, it is not hard to figure that the tire industry in 1919 has turned out approximately 30,000,000

casings and over 30,000,000 tubes. If the automobile industry swings back into its normal production schedule, we may hazard a guess that the tire industry will be called upon for 40,000,000 casings and over 40,000,000 tubes during the year 1920.

A GIGANTIC SCHEME OF CO-OPERATION.

There is a strong movement the world over towards the socialisation, public ownership, or public control, of industries. During the war, Governments took over factories, railways, steamship lines, and operated them more or less regardless of cost, but, in so doing, demonstrated that it was advisable in many cases to substitute public control for private ownership. In England the probabilities are that the Government will continue to operate the railways, instead of handing them back again to a dozen private concerns, many of them active rivals. In America the question of returning the railways to private companies has led to an immense amount of discussion as to the advisability of establishing more direct Government control over these public utilities than existed before the war.

The railroad interests are asking for a guarantee of a definite income of 6 per cent. upon their capital. Labour strongly objects to this, alleging that there are billions of dollars of watered capital in the railroads, and that the proposal to guarantee 6 per cent. is an attempt at "an extortion of 6 per cent. on 20 billions of half fraudulent securities."

Three principal schemes have been put forward, viz.:—(1) Return of railroads to private ownership with a government subsidy. (2) Return of railroads to private ownership with rate increase. (3) Government ownership and operation.

Mr. Glenn E. Plumb, General Counsel for the Organised Railway Employers of America, put forward a fourth alternative, which has become known as the "Plumb-Plan." This has been incorporated in a bill which is now before Congress.

Recently Mr. Plumb appeared before a committee of the House of Representatives, and explained the principles of his plan. Much of this explanation is

reprinted in *The Contemporary Review*. The plan is probably the most ambitious scheme for the co-operative running of a gigantic concern that has ever been formulated. It is supported by the Railroad Unions, and by the American Federation of Labour. This support is very significant in view of the fact that the Plan would allow a double share of the profits to officials of the railroads who do not belong to the unions or to the Federation of Labour.

Mr. Plumb proposes that the railroads should be acquired by the State at a valuation to be arrived at by the courts, under a system which precludes payment for watered stock. He urges that the operation of the railroads should not be undertaken by a Government Department, but by a special board of fifteen directors—five of these to be appointed by the President to represent the public, five to be elected by the operating officials, and five by the employees. This board of directors, the operating officials—described as official employees—and the employees—described as classified employees—would be constituted into a corporation, and be called the National Railways Operating Corporation. It would lease, maintain, and operate all the railway lines of the United States, not for private profit, but for the public service. This corporation, Mr. Plumb suggests, should be created for a term of 100 years, the directors to hold office for ten years, but an arrangement be made so that a certain number came up for re-election or renomination every year.

The most interesting part of the plan deals with the distribution of profits. First of all, the corporation is required to pay to the Treasurer of the United States, the amount found to be due under the provision for sinking fund, and the amount required for interest on the capital employed in the acquisition

of the railways. All operating revenues received by the corporation in excess of the amount required to carry on the railways and to provide for maintenance, renewals and the above mentioned interest payments are to be regarded as net earnings. At the end of each year the corporation is to pay to the Treasurer of the United States one-half of the net earnings accrued. This money is to be used by the Treasurer to pay for extensions and improvements, and any accumulation in excess of 500,000,000 dols. is to be paid by the Treasurer to the sinking fund.

The portion of the net earnings retained by the Corporation is to be distributed amongst the classified employees and the official employees. Each classified employee is to receive a dividend reckoned on the basis of his annual wage; each official employee is similarly to receive a dividend, but in his case the dividend is to be at twice as high a rate as that given to the classified employee. That is to say, if a classified employee, earning £200 in wages a year, obtained a dividend of £10, that is 5 per cent. of his wages, an official employee receiving £300 a year in wages would get a dividend of £30.

Under cross-examination Mr. Plumb stated that there were 2,200,000 classified employees, and about 20,000 official employees. He pointed out that the public would have a voice in the control of the railways through the five members appointed by the President; he also stated that the classified employees, in agreeing to the official employees having equal representation with themselves, and getting twice as high a dividend, had voluntarily surrendered the very great advantage which their numbers gave them.

It may be said that the public ought to have representatives on such a board. I think the employees would welcome that, but I believe that as it is drawn the employees have submitted to a restriction much more severe than could be imposed by public representatives, for this reason:—The managing employees have twice the rate of dividend that the classified employees can obtain. Now, it is manifest that with 20,000 managing employees, or a smaller number under such a consolidation, and more than 2,000,000 classified employees, any slight raise in the wage levels of the 2,000,000, or any great proportion of the 2,000,000, would immediately reduce the extra

dividend allowed to the managing employees; and they will be very vigilant to protect the advantage. So we provide that in case there cannot be a decision by the board, so equally balanced, it shall then go to the public representatives. The self-interest of the managing officials always will impel them to resist an increase in the wage levels.

He declared that the plan eliminated the profits motive, and substituted the service motive. It removed the main cause of industrial friction, and permitted of a co-ordination and co-operation obtainable under no other proposed scheme. If there were any controversy on the railroads, it would not be carried to the Government for settlement, but would have to be arranged by the corporation itself. As it was composed chiefly of the employees themselves, they could never be disgruntled with their Government. They could feel disgruntled with themselves.

In the matter of State control, Mr. Plumb had some very interesting things to say:—

It seems to me that our Government is a separate department of our social life from the productive enterprises. If we combine the two, we have passed into socialism. If we can keep them separate, we can still carry on our democratic form of government and at the same time may democratise our industry. Now, our Government was not organised for the purpose of conducting industry. There was no such purpose in the minds of the framers of our Constitution; but it was organised to protect the political and civic rights of its citizens. Then the Government organised or created corporations for the conduct of our industry, and the conduct of that industry has been almost totally absorbed by these creatures of Government. So that, in fact, to-day, the Government is conducting our industries, not for the benefit of its citizens, but for the profit of those who finance those industries. Now, we want to utilise all of the benefits that the corporate organisations have brought to the social order, but we want to turn the purpose of those organisations from the production of profit for private individuals to the benefit of the public, because through these organisations, these corporations, we have effectually socialised our industries to-day, but they have been socialised for the wrong purpose. We merely want to divert that purpose and utilise the strength of that social organisation for the direct benefit of those who make up these organisations and who constitute the public.

Altogether, this "Plumb Plan" is well worth looking into, as it does seem to offer a reasonable solution of an extraordinarily difficult problem.

RUSSIA'S REMARKABLE PRIME MINISTER.

Not long ago, when it was the fashion to regard Bolshevism as purely of the devil, without a single redeeming feature in its doctrine, Lenin was looked upon as a filibustering adventurer of the lowest type. He was accused of the blackest crimes, and his being in the pay of Germany was accepted as a commonplace. The marvellous success which has crowned his military efforts, the wonderful manner in which he has managed to unite a chaotic Russia—attacked on every side by powerful enemies, blockaded, held up to the execration of the world—have caused an entirely different attitude to be taken towards him. He is no longer accused of self-seeking ambition, but is admitted to be personally incorruptible, striving conscientiously for great ideals. That he has been forced to compromise has been held up against him, but with all these compromises he has pressed far more unswervingly towards his goal than have the statesmen of the Allies who were lavish in their promises about the destruction of militarism, self-determination, and the like, but who did not hesitate to abandon those ideals the moment they won the victory.

Naturally, one is anxious to know something about Lenin, the man, and therefore welcomes an article in *The Fortnightly*, which gives a brief account of his life. It says:—

Vladimir Ilyitch Ulianoff, or, as he is generally known, Lenin, was born at Simbirsk on the Volga on April 10th, 1870. His father was a State Councillor, and Lenin himself was therefore a "hereditary nobleman." Brought up in the Orthodox faith, the young Lenin was educated at the Simbirsk Gymnasium, and at the age of seventeen entered the Kazan University. In 1887 his father died, and his mother, who had a small estate in the Kazan Government, received a State pension. In the same year Lenin himself was expelled from the University of Kazan, and forbidden to reside within the town on account of his participation in a political demonstration, organised by the University students. In the same year, too, his brother Alexander, was executed as one of the conspirators in a terroristic plot against the life of the reigning Emperor. It is interesting to note that, in addition to this brother, another brother, Dimitri, was placed under police supervision at Pojolsk, in the Government of Moscow. In fact, the whole family, in spite of the father's official position, seems to have been deeply im-

bued with violent revolutionary sentiments. Lenin's sister, Maria, was a member of the Russian Social Democratic Party, and on more than one occasion, came into collision with the Russian police on account of her political beliefs. Another sister, Anna, was wedded to a political suspect, while Lenin himself married Nadejda Konstantinovna Krupskaia, a political exile.

Lenin then entered the University at Petrograd, and qualified as "assistant barrister," although he never practised.

In 1895 he made the first of his many journeys abroad, where he came into contact with George Valentinovitch Plechanoff, the "father of Russian Social-Democracy," and, like Lenin himself, a pure Russian of noble birth. In 1896 Lenin returned to Russia, and was again arrested by the secret police on account of his Socialistic activities amongst the Petrograd workmen. On this occasion he was exiled for three years to Siberia, and completed his sentence in the cold confines of the Yenisei Government. On the expiry of his time he was forbidden to live in either of the Russian capitals, in any university town, or in any industrial district. He therefore went abroad again. From this date until his return to Russia through Germany in the notorious "sealed wagon" in the winter of 1917, his whole life was passed in plotting against Tsarism abroad, and in secret visits to Russia, to collect money and to examine on the spot the revolutionary situation inside Russia itself. At the beginning of the present century Lenin was already one of the leading figures in the Russian Social-Democratic Party, and by the summer of 1903 he had so far established his position as to be able to challenge his former teachers on questions of policy and organisation, and to create a party of his own, which, after the formal split in the Russian Social-Democratic Party, was to be known in the future as the Bolsheviks.

He spent the years from 1903 till 1911 abroad. During them he carried on controversies with the Mensheviks, lectured on Socialism, and trained agents and agitators, whom he sent to Russia, to advocate his doctrines. He devoted much of his time to the preparation of "illegal" literature, which he disseminated throughout Russia.

During those years his most faithful adherents were Zinovieff, Kameneff, Lunacharsky, Stalin, and the agent-provocateur Malinovsky, who seem to have duned Lenin most successfully. At the time of the outbreak of war, Lenin, together with Zinovieff, was living in Galicia, a favourite resort on account of its proximity to the Russian frontier. With some difficulty he succeeded in making his way to Switzerland, where he began with renewed energy that work of revolutionary propaganda, which was later to

reap its full harvest in the Bolshevik revolution of October, 1917.

In his personal appearance there is nothing to suggest the superman. In the records of the old Tsarist secret police he is thus described:—

"Short of stature, thick-set, with short neck and round, red face; his moustache and beard he has shaved; nose slightly turned up, piercing eyes, bold with high forehead; nearly always carries on his arm a water-proof cape; constantly changes his head-gear from a sheepskin-fur hat to a Finnish cap of English tweed, with a peak like a jockey's; walks with a firm gait." Except that to-day he wears a brownish moustache, and a short stubby beard, and that his forehead is deeply wrinkled, the description does credit to the photographic accuracy of the police official who made it.

No one, looking at him, would believe him capable of hurting even a fly. Therein he differs from his more turbulent colleague, Trotsky, who has an appearance of ruthlessness.

Lenin is always smiling, always good-humoured. He never loses his temper, and in the many crises through which he has passed, his admirable self-control has been one of his greatest assets. His methods are not in any way dictatorial, and yet there is something in those steel-grey eyes that suggest supreme power, something in that quizzing, half-contemptuous, half-smiling look, which speaks of boundless self-confidence and conscious superiority. If within the inner councils of his Government he suggests rather than commands, so much is he a dictator of the intellect that, as Mr. Ransome has well said, his well-reasoned advice is far more compelling to his followers than any command. His private life, so far as is known, is completely blameless, and even his worst enemies have been unable to deny the simplicity and almost austere frugality of his daily wants. His personal courage is beyond question. It is the courage of a fanatic sublimely conscious of the infallibility of his doctrine, and of the cause which he has championed.

It has been again and again suggested, in the press, that Lenin is far more moderate than most of his colleagues, and that he has been driven almost against his will, to countenance measures which are distasteful to him. This writer holds this view to be incorrect.

Lenin is, above all things, impersonal. Personal likes and dislikes have no place in the cold, hard logic of that calculating mind. If he is against terror, it is for well-reasoned tactical considerations, and not through any

personal inclinations towards clemency. It is only fair to state that Lenin is equally free from any of those personal feelings of vengeance which characterise the actions of some of his colleagues. But in order to realise his dream of world-revolution, every obstacle must be swept away, and if the attainment of this object demands cruelty, Lenin will be the last to shrink before it. His code of honour, if a peculiar one from our point of view, is nevertheless a rigid one, and there are few men who are more disinterested, more free from personal ambition, and from all taint of worldly gain, than the Bolshevik Prime Minister. In personal intercourse, even with his enemies, his manners are invariably courteous and correct. His extensive knowledge of foreign countries, and of foreign labour conditions, is a great advantage to him in his present position, and, in addition to an intimate acquaintance with the German language, he speaks and writes English with tolerable accuracy and fluency. His intellectual attainments reach a high level. He has read widely in philosophy and political economy, and in either of these subjects he is capable of holding his own with the most brilliant European professors. Whatever may be his faults and his shortcomings, few will deny that he towers above the rest of his colleagues, like a giant amidst a race of dwarfs.

Lenin, unlike most Socialists, took no side whatever in the war; he held that it was an imperialist and capitalist war, in which both sides were equally guilty. He said:—

"The whole economic and diplomatic history of the past ten years shows that both groups of the combatant nations have systematically prepared for a war of this kind. The question as to who struck the first blow, or who first declared war, has no importance in defining the tactics of the Socialists. Phrases about the defence of one's fatherland, about resistance to hostile invasion, about a war to end war, etc., are merely forms of deception of the masses employed by both sides."

Many people are now coming to believe that Lenin's view was the right one, although they would not apply Lenin's remedy. This writer holds that Lenin has no intention of embarking on a campaign of military conquest in other countries, although he does not exclude the possibility of extending help to the struggling proletariat abroad. Therein, of course, lies the danger of Russia's recently won military successes. This critic holds that Lenin's offer of peace to the Allies is made only to tide him over a period of temporary difficulty, a view with which I do not agree.

ERSATZ UBER ALLES!

According to Mr. I. F. Marcosson, the German slogan, "Deutschland über Alles" might, during the war, have been well paraphrased "Ersatz über Alles" for the substitute—Ersatz—had naturally to become the god of the people's idolatry. Mr. Marcosson is contributing a most informative series of articles on "Germany from Within" to *The Saturday Evening Post*, in the last of these he deals with industry as he found it in the country after the war. He tells of the old prestige of German made goods, and goes on:—

There is a conviction in many quarters, based quite naturally on the penetration which planted the Made-in-Germany stamp wherever you went, that quantity output was responsible for all the old prestige. As a matter of fact, Germany never engaged in what might be called mass production. Her industrial supremacy lay first, in an uncanny genius for substitution; second, in a no less uncanny genius for specialisation. Her workmen excelled in those products that demanded unusual skill in designing, engineering, or finishing.

When war broke out Germany was faced with an acute problem in the matter of raw materials, and her scientists at once set to work to provide substitutes.

The reader need not be told why Germany had to create substitutes. With no raw materials coming in it simply became a question of how far substitution could be carried. If the war had gone on indefinitely, I am quite convinced that the Germans would have found a substitute for everything but human life and sunshine! As it was, their medical experts came dangerously near confuting Nature by prolonging life in many instances.

He declares that it was not the breakdown of German industry that ended the war.

On the day the Armistice was signed the German industrial machine was going at full tilt. It was a dynamo of energy, geared to war. What sounded the doom note of Germany was first, the growth of Socialism; second, the unrest born of underfeeding; third, the realisation by the soldiers at the Front that they were involved in a hopeless cause. Here in a nutshell you have the whole secret of the collapse.

Paper played a leading part in the Ersatz campaign. Wood, from which it is made, was the one resource which the Germans had in abundance. Apparently no article of daily use or wear that em-

ployed cotton before the war, escaped some sort of paper substitution

Merely deciding that paper would be the principal substitute though, did not solve the problem. A whole industry had to be created, and the German inventive mind, always resourceful, was taxed as never before. Machinery was devised, and immense plants were established. The German is long on concentration, and judging from the evidences of his ingenuity that I found he did a thorough job in frustrating the shortage in cotton and wool.

He tells how he purchased a man's soft shirt made of paper, which looked and felt like the real cotton article. It cost him seven marks—just about 8d.!

I have also on my desk a woman's black stocking, made of paper. It is one of a pair that I bought at the same shop for four marks. The war price was eight marks. This stocking is considerably coarser than the shirt. It is evidently intended for summer wear, because it is somewhat porous. The woman who sold it to me confided that she had worn them throughout the last two years of the war, and that they were good for at least six washings in tepid water. This is true of the laundry feature of most of these washable materials.

He spent a day in a leading shop in Berlin, examining the whole range of paper substitutes. Chintz in gaudy colours, rugs, table cloths so much like linen that it was almost impossible to notice the difference.

Still more surprising was the array of wearing apparel. I saw what women call sports skirts in gay reds and blues, smart-looking tailor-mades in brown and gray that looked like the real thing. Hundreds and hundreds of yards of plaids in black and white, and red and black, suitable for skirts, were unrolled before me. There were men's net undershirts, and women's thin undervests; stockings for both sexes; indeed, nearly every possible commodity that could be imagined or needed.

Of course, there was one excellent reason why substitute articles were popular. The price of cotton or wool goods was so terrific during the war that only the very rich and the profiteers, who were richer, could afford to buy them. The German had to use substitutes or do without.

There was a great slump in the sale of substitutes when the war ended, or rather when the Armistice was signed. People would not buy the make believe article when there was a chance of getting the real one, no matter how costly.

Now we come to the most important phase of the whole transaction, as affecting the

purpose of this article. Though the business in substitutes was one of the national bulwarks during the war, it will not be correspondingly useful in German economic rehabilitation. As I have already pointed out, Fritz had to use these makeshifts during the national extremity, but he will not buy them now the real thing is about to be available. Hence, the whole enormous industry created out of war need will practically have to be scrapped with peace, with the possible exception of that part of it which is devoted to artificial silks and nitrates. It means that when real merchandise to wear does begin to pour into Germany, as it inevitably will, it will be snapped up like those proverbial hot cakes that you often read about.

Like everyone else who has visited Germany Mr. Marcossan declares that the first and foremost need is raw materials. If Germany is denied them by the world with which she was at war, she will lie prostrate; her recovery will be impossible. That, says the loud-voiced patriot, is what we hope will happen. He fails to realise though that a ruined Germany means in the long run a ruined Europe and a permanently crippled England. Mr. Marcossan also points out that, badly as she needs raw materials, Germany cannot possibly pay cash for it. She must have credit which Americans will not extend at present, though British and Belgian merchants

are now arranging three and six months' credit in some cases. He says that the jump in the price of cotton is due to German buying, but shows that at present prices, and the ruling rate of exchange, German merchants, who, before the war, spent 35,000 marks for 1000 bales of cotton, would to-day have to pay 5,000,000 marks for it. As the annual pre-war consumption was 1,500,000 bales, to get what is absolutely needed would cost no less than 7,500,000 marks. Obviously, the individual manufacturer cannot hope to start his factory again unless he gets financial help or long credit.

In the present extremity—and the performance is typical of what might be called the new spirit of German industry—certain cotton-spinning interests in Saxony are forming a huge syndicate to buy a large quantity of raw cotton, and pool it for the general use.

The idea behind the enterprise is that America will be more likely to extend a long credit to a group of manufacturers than to isolated individuals.

In discussing this matter a leading Berlin financier said to me. "I believe that this effort to organise the Saxon cotton spinners into a huge syndicate, to make and finance collective purchases, more especially of raw materials in America, will be followed by other industries."

MAKING TILES IN INDIA.

Mr. S. J. James, writing in *The World's Work*, tells how the war has enabled India to beat the mother country in making one necessary product. In India, Ceylon and Burma, there is an enormous and increasing demand for tiles, and he mentions that Australia requires a large number also. All these countries were at one time supplied from Europe, but enterprising British manufacturers, who some time ago erected plants on the west coast of India, are fast capturing the remnants of the business still left with European firms. Several of these Indian concerns now have an average annual output of over 7,000,000.

The tiles are made from clay, mixed with certain proportions of flint and china-stone. The clay is of two qualities—a strong white, and a mild yellow rich in ferric oxide. Both kinds are brought six miles or more down the River Bhagput, in barges, and dumped on the site where each lot is left for twelve months to "weather."

He describes how tiles are made, and mentions that they command from 30s. to 50s. per thousand, for roofing purposes. They are astonishingly thin, being only $\frac{3}{8}$ -in. in thickness; consequently they cost comparatively little for railway carriage, and are sold all over India at the price mentioned.

Experienced British clayworkers have pronounced the opinion that these Indian-made tiles are in every way far superior to the product of England or indeed of Europe generally. They are neater and more attractive in appearance, and it is very probable that, if they could be put on the market in this country, British manufacturers would lose a big proportion of the home trade, just as they have lost practically all the Eastern business.

Mr. James rejoices that the war has removed the danger of active competition by the large German firms who had established "well designed and splendidly equipped factories" in Malabar. Each employed over 5000 hands. He does not say who has inherited these

"well designed and splendidly equipped factories."

The greatest of all the difficulties our Indian manufacturers have to contend with today is that of labour. The coolies are almost entirely uneducated, and are extremely slow in learning their work. It is not possible to talk to them in any but their own language, and every care has to be exercised in dealing with them, for the law favours natives somewhat, and they know it, which results at times in a very aggravating behaviour.

One would have imagined by this time that it had occurred to the enterprising British manufacturers to insist upon their foremen learning the language of

the country! "As a set off, though," says Mr. James, "against the many disadvantages of native labour, must be mentioned the fact that the wages demanded are almost increditable low."

Clerks, foremen, blacksmiths, carpenters and masons of the best (obtainable) quality can be engaged for the sum of five shillings weekly, whilst labourers are content with half a crown, and "boys" gladly accept one and threepence.

This, says he, may perhaps be regarded as sweated labour, even when allowance is made for the fact that a Hindu coolie can live on 2½d. per day.

AUSTRALIA'S MEAGRE WAR PENSIONS.

A comparison of war pensions paid by Britain, the Dominions, and other countries, was recently published in London in a Government White Paper. It made Australia's provision appear very meagre, as the following extracts show:

WEEKLY PENSION FOR TOTALLY DISABLED PRIVATE.

	s. d.
Canada	47 11
United Kingdom	40 0
New Zealand	40 0
South Africa	40 0
France	37 0
Australia	30 0
United States (since increased)	28 10
Italy (temporary increased rate)	23s.
6d. to	37 1
Germany (plus a bonus)	13s. 10d. to 26 4

Except in the cases of France and Germany there are additional allowances for a wife, and except in the case of Germany, there are additional allowances per child.

FOR A PRIVATE'S WIDOW.

	s. d.
Canada (plus bonus of 7s. 8d.) ..	38 4
New Zealand	30 0
South Africa	25 0
United States (since increased) ..	24 0
United Kingdom	20 0
Australia	20 0
France	11 3½
Italy	9 7
Germany	7 8

FOR DECEASED PRIVATE'S FIRST CHILD (UNDER TEN).

	s. d.
Canada	14 4
United Kingdom	10 0
Australia	10 0
New Zealand	10 0
South Africa	10 0
United States	9 7
France	4 7
Germany	3 2½
Italy	1 6½

Germany has granted an all-round bonus of 40 per cent. from June 1, 1919, in addition to the bonus mentioned in the first table.

These figures are accurate, but they misrepresent Australia by failing to show the amounts paid to pensioners as "living allowance" by the Repatriation Department. With this allowance the total payments are not very far short of the Canadian standard. Thus a widow receives a total of £2 per week; widow and one child £2 11s.; widow and two children £2 14s. 6d.; widow and three children £2 18s.

The Returned Soldiers' Association is not satisfied with the present rates. It is asking the Government to increase the pensions for widows and totally disabled men to £2 2s. a week, with similar increases for children. For instance, it is requested that a widow with three children be paid a pension of £3 4s. 6d. a week, in place of the present total of £2 18s., which includes both pension and allowance. The Association is content with the present pensions paid to officers of higher rank—those who would receive £5 5s. for total disablement—but for all lower ranks it requests increases. For any disabled man needing an attendant, an additional £1 2s. 6d. per week is asked.

For blind pensioners an increase from £1 10s. to £1 per week has been asked, and the Prime Minister, Mr. Hughes, has definitely promised that it will be granted.

TRUE STORY OF THE INFLUENZA OUTBREAK AT HOLDSWORTHY INTERNMENT CAMP.

So many wild stories have been circulated about the fatal outbreak of influenza at the camp where Germans were interned during the war, which outbreak it is roundly asserted could have been entirely avoided had the military taken the most ordinary precautions, that I think it well to print the story as it was sent to me by one of the internees some time ago. I have never seen or corresponded with him, but have ascertained that he was an upright and honourable man, whose word can be relied upon. I have taken the trouble of checking his story which has been fully corroborated. He himself is, I understand, no longer in the country. The account is as follows:

Holdsworth lies five miles S.S.E. of Liverpool, N.S.W. At the beginning of 1918 the camp consisted of the main compound, the hospital compound, the Trial Bay compound, and the old men's compound. Each of these compounds was surrounded by a triple fence of barbed wire, and was guarded night and day by armed sentries, with fixed bayonets. There were forty-two companies of 100 men each in the main compound—4200 men in all. In the Trial Bay compound were 560 men, and in the old men's, 60. The vermin and terrible dust completed the misery caused by confinement, loss of occupation, and insufficient food. The hospital usually had from 10 to 20 patients, but these were always serious cases. The lesser ailments were treated morning and evening at the doctors parade, which was always well attended.

In May, 1919, the *Willocra* arrived in Sydney from New Zealand, an influenza stricken land. She disembarked 104 Austro-Hungarians, who were sent straight from the ship to Holdsworth. After a few days in the old men's compound they were sent into the main camp. On May 27th the *Willocra* took away 655 men from the main camp. Two days later most of the Trial Bay men were sent on board the *Kursk*. With them went a handful of civilians, old men and invalids from the main camp,

and also those who alone could be regarded as true prisoners of war, soldiers from Kiauchau, and sailors from the *Emden*—some 200 men. This left about 4000 men at Holdsworth. After the customary contradictory instructions and muddling changes, the third transport, *Tras es montes* was announced to sail on June 17th. Soon after the arrival of the Austro-Hungarians, the camp had been placed in quarantine, a quarantine which was daily violated by the military officers in particular. Two of the guard died of influenza, one on June 6th, the other on June 15th.

It was rumoured in the camp that the medical officer in charge had opposed sending the men by the *Tras es Montes*, because of the danger of influenza. This rumour was confirmed in the daily papers of June 24th. 1227 internees left camp by train, and boarded the ship at Pyrmont wharf. Many of the sailors, in fact all the men, on their subsequent return to the main compound, stated that never had they seen a ship so abominably filthy, the excrements, the vomits, the putrid waste food of the previous voyage, still clinging to the sides and works and crannies of the vessel.

After sending nine men on shore, the Health Officer gave the *Tras es Montes* clearance. She then cast off and steamed through the Heads with, it is stated, no medicine on board. The vessel had scarcely left the Harbour when the ship's doctor interviewed the captain, with the result that she was turned round, and re-entering, cast anchor at the quarantine station. Here, however, the authorities refused to allow any of the sick to land, because, as stated in one of the morning papers, "they were prisoners of war."

Meanwhile, the nine men left on Pyrmont wharf were refused admission to public hospitals, and were finally dispatched in motor ambulances to Holdsworth. After some breakdowns, and several long delays, the ambulances reached camp between one and two o'clock on the cold and bitter morning of June 18th. The unfortunate patients

were then left in one of the open sheds, called barracks, bare bunks, having for covering three blankets. It is hardly surprising that two or three of these men died; the wonder is that, after such a journey, and such exposure, any of them recovered.

The following day the dread scourge was sweeping through the camp, and by Friday, the 20th, hundreds had become infected. The hospital compound was quickly filled, but the military did nothing whatever to meet the situation until the following Sunday. Efforts were, however, made by the internees themselves to cope with the situation. Volunteers were called for by the transport committee. The Austrian hall and nine other small buildings were cleared. Rough stretchers were nailed together, to stand side by side in these extemporised hospitals. Although many men volunteered for the task of nursing the patients, they could do little, as there was no medicine of any kind whatever, no thermometers, no milk, absolutely no light food, and not a drop of spirits, although had any of the latter been available, the situation might perhaps have been saved.

The majority of these men nurses were drawn from amongst the seamen, who were themselves quite destitute, having not even a penny wherewith to supplement the starvation rations, or to buy a cigarette. They however volunteered for this dangerous service without any hope of a reward. Everyone in the camp therefore was glad when, six or eight days after the beginning of the outbreak, the C.O., unasked, promised them, on behalf of the Defence Department, 2s. per day. After the outbreak was over, the committee was told to make up the wage account—it came to slightly over £100. The C.O. offered £20! This paltry sum was promptly rejected.

When the outbreak began, the medical officer-in-charge resigned, it being generally stated in the camp that he did so because he was not able to obtain the necessary medicines. His assistance then took charge. A strong petition had meanwhile been sent to Mr. Justice Harvey, describing the barbarous condition of affairs, and imploring that something should be done to improve the situation.

The petitioners suggested—(1) that all men residents of Australia, not to be repatriated, be released at once; (2) that the interned medical practitioners be given a perfectly free hand, and that they and their prescriptions and rules be binding like those of the military medical officers; (3) that the camp be permitted to rule itself without the interference of minor officials or camp police; (4) that all healthy internees who wish to be repatriated, be sent away at once, without loss of a single day.

Doubtless, as a result of Justice Harvey's representations, the Military was at last moved to try and cope with the situation. On Sunday, 22nd, the three interned doctors were called in conference by Colonel Holman, the C.O. They inspected all the compounds, and found the situation most serious. The larger buildings used as hospitals had damp earthen floors, no light or ventilation, because the large spaces through which ordinarily light and air came, had to be nailed up with old canvas, to keep out the bitter cold. The mild cases, the serious, the dangerous, the dying—all huddled together. No fires, no medicines, no milk, no light foods, no thermometers, no spirits.

The result of the conference was that all the most dangerous cases were removed to the hospital compound, whilst Trial Bay compound and old men's compound were filled with as many patients as they could hold. The interned physicians were given charge of the different compounds, the camp doctor having general supervision.

The method of the removal of the patients was crude in the extreme. A few large two-horse waggons were brought in, and on to these the sick men were unceremoniously loaded, and jolted away to their new abode. 300 of the men from the *Tras los Montes* were sent to the hospital in connection with Liverpool camp. Owing to the protests of the German doctors, further removals were suspended on the following day, as it was very cold and wet, but were completed on the 25th. These arrangements, which were carried out by the advice of the interned doctors, raised the drooping spirits of the whole of the camp, and the fact that their own competent medical men were at last per-

mitted to attend on them gave the sick men heart.

The death roll reached its highest point on the 26th, when twelve deaths occurred, this fell to nine on the 27th, nine on the 28th, three on the 29th, two on the 30th, and the last death occurred on July 19th. According to the official list, the total death roll reached 94, which, in a population of 4000, is 23.5 per 1000. No official list of those attacked was kept, but the German doctors considered that at least half the camp were sick.

After the patients were dead, they were reverently prepared for burial by German orderlies, and carried to the mortuary tent. An ancient cart, with horse and harness to match, was then sent by the authorities to this tent, and the dead bodies were unceremoniously piled upon it, and taken away. This callous treatment of their dead greatly angered all the internees.

Not only were the dead thus treated, but the interned doctors were so hampered by restrictions, that they found it very difficult to attend to their self-imposed duties. Probably the greatest anger, though, was roused in the camp owing to the refusal of the C.O. to allow dying Catholics to receive the Sacraments of Confession and Extreme Unc-

tion, which an interned priest urged that he be allowed to give. Every Catholic in the camp regarded this action of the C.O. as the greatest outrage that could possibly be perpetrated.

One of them comments on the matter as follows:—"To me, as to every Catholic, this was, and is, injustice absolute and irreparable. To intern enemy subjects, non-combatants, without warning, without charge, without trial, without any just or impartial hearing, is a crime not merely against Christianity, but against decent right-thinking humanity. To do this to naturalised and native born, disgraces the moral code of a Red Indian. To cast thousands of men from different spheres of civil life, of different ages and temperaments, into this wind and sand-swept spot, sheltered in sheds not fit for dogs, living on starvation rations, surrounded by barbed wire, and by armed guards—tell me, what manner of crime is this? To rob innocent men of all worldly goods, of livelihood, of liberty, of health, of home, of all things dear to the human heart, but not content with this, to prevent at the moment of death, the poor, dying men, dying far from home, from seeing the priest in order to make their peace with God as their conscience dictated. Surely, if any evil brings God's vengeance, this will."

Q.—How was the publication of the Kaiser's private letters to the late Tsar Nicholas made possible?

A.—When the Tsar was murdered at Ekaterinburg, a silver casket was discovered containing his most confidential papers. It was sent to the Soviet authorities at Moscow, where it was found to contain, among other papers, 73 letters from "Willy to Nicky," and two drafts for Russo-German secret treaties. An American journalist of Russian origin, Isaak Don Levine, was in Moscow at the time. He sought permission to photograph the correspondence, and gained his wish, though not without difficulty. Levine was apparently holding the documents without publishing them, but a Paris journalist heard of his "scoop," and tracked him

through three countries. Then arrangements were made for simultaneous publication of the letters in one paper in London, one in Paris, and one in Berlin.

Q.—Who are the war prisoners in Siberia who are said to be suffering bitter hardships?

A.—Mostly Austrians and Hungarians captured by the Tsar's armies in the early days of the war. There are a few Germans and Turks also. The total number is about 150,000. The prisoners get one miserable meal a day. They have practically no clothing. Many have been crippled for life by the freezing of their limbs. In one camp 1400 died last winter. Many appeals have been made for the repatriation of these men.



NOTABLE BOOKS.

CELEBRITIES WITH SALT.*

"It will probably be many years before the world knows" is a phrase not seldom in the mind of Mr. Raymond as he writes his book of characters. The same phrase applies to the judgment and solidity of his records. Whether his account of Lloyd George or Lord Northcliffe or Mr. Balfour, Mr. Winston Churchill and some twenty-eight other men that he has seen in the public eye is a true account, posterity—which is nearly as likely as Mr. Raymond to go mistaken—will have to say.

The whole book, of course, rests on that solid British belief that the English gentleman is the most superior of earthly beings. Mr. Raymond believes also that England went into the war to save the future of civilisation. After these two basic convictions, the author ranges pretty free of party labels, as he says, and prefers the wider to the narrower loyalty. The most important question to be asked of any public man at this time, he believes, is, "Is he a good Englishman?" He keeps us constantly in mind of what an immense section of English intellectual concern turns on running the government. Elsewise he lets the glitter and stir of the times go past in the procession of the thirty-two figures, by one method or another, bits of biography, social theory, humanistic comment, gossip; a little of everything, and cannily done. There is no attempt to focus, to superimpose a historical method. A thesis for a Ph. D. would do that. Mr. Raymond is close enough to his material to know better.

But so long as historians, students, and professors of history cannot agree as to what history is, we need not concern ourselves with applying historical tests to a book as contemporaneous as this morning's breakfast. Nor do we

have to wait for posterity to know how delightfully and astonishingly and shrewdly the book reads. From Lloyd George, who heads the list, to Samuel Gompers, who ends it, two hundred and fifty pages almost, there is hardly a sag in the interest. Whatever else the essays may be, they are a high class of journalistic literature. Whatever they may do with events and facts as such, they do create portraits. They express our life, and stir us to response, which is the business of literature. Mr. Raymond is a sort of Theophrastus taken to politics, urbane, knowing and sharp-eyed, a little scandalous now and then.

"Mr. Lloyd George's ministry," he says, "is like an orchestra composed of performers of very unequal merit, under a conductor who only occasionally troubles to conduct, being engaged in writing the music, looking after the stage carpentry, advertising the performance, and even selling the tickets. It is not quite an adequate compensation that the conductor himself is a master on many instruments, and can always be relied on to snatch the trombone or picolo from a pretender, and show how the thing should be done."

Jowett had said at Balliol, "Asquith is the one pupil of mine for whom I can most confidently predict success in life." "Jowettary," according to Mr. Raymond, "was the philosophy of getting on in its most dignified guise, a sublimated opportunism, in which worship of the main chance was robbed of its grossness, and made a fit faith for a scholar and a gentleman."

Mr. Winston Churchill "upset his critics' gravity when at twenty-seven he affected the airs of a political Manfred, weighted with an intolerable burden of care. The bowed shoulders, the thoughtful frown, the tense manner, contrasting with the extreme boyishness

*"Uncensored Celebrities," by E. T. Raymond.

of his face and figure, belonged to the realm of pure comedy. On the other hand, it was as unpleasant to mark his hungry egotism as to watch the greed of a child miser. But even in those early days, whether one smiled or railed, one could not dismiss him as an ordinary poseur or an ordinary place seeker."

Mr. Arthur Henderson had said in a speech that he was convinced of the wisdom of England's entrance into the war by a Sunday afternoon's reading of the British Blue Book. "That is very typical of the man. Words convinced where deeds did not. He was not going to condemn the tiger because he saw it actually rending a lamb; that might be unjust to the tiger. But he could not resist affidavits from the official sheepherds, and an authoritative zoologist from South Kensington."

The essay on Viscount Northcliffe speaks of "that curiously arrogant shyness, that eagerness for power without responsibility, that passion for publicity and shrinking from its consequences,

that make him at once the most and least known man in English public life."

Superiority in Lord Curzon "is not an excrescence; it is an aroma. Like the musk in the mortar of St. Sophia at Constantinople, it is destined to last as long as the fabric. Whence Lord Curzon derives this superiority is his own secret." Such effective quotations thrown together might suggest perhaps a leaning toward clever superficiality. No more so than most records, or less perhaps. The delicacies of this wit rest on pretty strong information.

Mr. Raymond smiles at many things, but nobody in politics knows better than he how much those profundities who would play the game of ruling the world only blunder along, and "get things transacted somehow." He is full of generous praise, and real enthusiasm, but he is no hero-worshipper, and the wit of these essays is sometimes like a bonfire into which a naughty boy has thrown a heap of cartridges. Out of the flash come wounds for many.—S.Y.

BARBED WIRE DISEASE.*

Dr. Vischer can probably speak with more authority on the psychology of internment camps than anyone else in Europe, for he was able to study the men in these camps, not only in the countries of the three principal combatants, but also in his own neutral Switzerland. The result of his investigations is summed up in his strong plea that when next time internment is resorted to all prisoners from the outset should be sent to some neutral country. That undoubtedly would be an immense step forward, but let us hope that there will be no "next time." If, however, there were another great war, it ought to be possible to arrange for the internment of civilians in a neutral country, or, at any rate, some agreement ought to be come to that these folk, whose only crime is that they happen to be travelling or staying in an enemy country when war breaks out, should not be treated as if they were ordinary criminals, or worse. Much of Dr. Vischer's book tells of the mental abnormalities

which the prison conditions have produced. His plea for neutral internment is on behalf of those hundreds of thousands in whom vital energy has been crippled, and happiness vanished.

To realise what war is it is necessary not only to have seen the ghastly wounds, the awful suffering, to have experienced the stench and sepsis of the shambles inside and outside the hospitals, to have been in the midst of bursting shell and crashing masonry; but to get a grasp of what the blockade has meant to millions of sufferers, to realise what years of confinement has brought to innocent men. For that reason Dr. Vischer's book is peculiarly valuable. Dr. Wilson, M.A., B.Sc., in a useful introduction, compares the prison camp with the civil gaol. In the former the four main causes which induce mental depression and abnormalities, are—(1) complete absence of any chance of being alone; (2) ignorance of the duration of captivity; (3) irregularity of communication from home; (4) "more than anything else, the barbed wire winds like a thread through the mental processes" of the prisoner.

* "Barbed Wire Disease." By A. L. Vischer, M.D. (Basle), M.R.C.S. (England). John Bale.

Catechism on Current Events.

Q.—Does France insist on holding large numbers of German war prisoners?

A.—About 400,000, it is reported, are still kept. Prince Max of Baden recently appealed on their behalf to the Archbishop of Canterbury. He stated that, according to the latest communication from the French Government, these prisoners were to be held as hostages. In reply to the suggestion that they were needed in France to restore the devastated areas, he said German Labour organisations were willing and able to provide the necessary substitutes.

Q.—How will Japan finance the increased cost of her fighting forces?

A.—By an additional income tax, estimated to yield ultimately £7,800,000 per annum, an additional liquor tax £5,700,000, by a suspension of payments in reduction of the national debt, and, if necessary, by payments out of ordinary revenue.

Q.—Has the cost of Government greatly increased in Japan?

A.—It is more than twice as high as in the year before the war. The Budget for 1913-14 was £58,680,000; for 1919-20, £127,500,000.

Q.—Is Japan increasing her payments for peace services as well as for war services?

A.—The increases in all departments are, of course, largely due to increased price standards. Great extensions are provided for in the telephone and telegraph services, at a total extra cost of £3,400,000, for the current year. An additional grant of £1,000,000 is being made to the Government of Korea. There are smaller increases for road-making, water-works, irrigation, afforestation, and education.

Q.—Does Japan still subsidise her ocean shipping services?

A.—Yes. The Budget for 1920-21 provides an increase of £104,000 in the vote for this purpose.

Q.—Is Japan still reducing her national debt?

A.—No. While some repayments were made during the war, the net re-

sult of her transactions was a slight increase in the national debt. During the current year Japan expects to borrow over £34,000,000, and she will suspend her payments in reduction of debt. It seems that, in spite of the improvement in her financial position during the war, Japan will again be dependent on the favour of Western financiers for the means of commercial and industrial progress.

Q.—Is it a fact that Britain controls more of the railways of China than any other nation, including China herself?

A.—When the lines now contracted for have been built, Britain will control 3845 miles out of a total of 15,494, while China will be master of only 2256 miles. Japan, if she takes over all the German lines in addition to her own, as is proposed, will have 3612 miles. Belgium, France and Russia have large concessions. The United States has nothing but a contract to build 300 miles.

Q.—How has the German war fleet been partitioned among the Allies?

A.—Britain receives 70 per cent.; Italy, 10 per cent.; France, 10 per cent.; Japan, 8 per cent.; United States, 2 per cent.

Q.—Which nations received the largest shares of the £2,000,000,000 advanced by the United States to the Allies last year?

A.—Britain received £855,400,000; France £577,400,000, Italy £320,000,000, Belgium £66,800,000, Czecho-Slovakia, Greece, Roumania, Serbia, Cuba and Liberia received smaller advances. (The above figures are reckoned on the basis of 5 dols. to the £. The present sterling value of the advances is really about 50 per cent. higher).

Q.—Did the Nobel Prize Committee accept the suggestion to award the Peace Prize to Viscount Grey?

A.—The Committee decided to make no award of the Peace Prize for 1918 or 1919.

Q.—What countries have the largest Jewish populations?

A.—Russia, Ukrainia and Poland have 1,000,000 Jews out of the world's total of about 15,000,000. In the United States there are 2,100,000 Jews; in the British Isles 300,000; in France 100,000, in Germany 700,000, in South Africa 10,000, and in Australia 19,500.

Q.—Have many war widows re-married in England?

A.—A recent return gave the number remarried as 38,664. Widows continue to receive their pensions for a year after marriage. The total number of widows still receiving pensions is 189,487.

Q.—How many persons of all classes are now receiving war pensions in Britain?

A.—The number is 2,621,313.

Q.—What amount per week do old age pensioners get in Great Britain?

A.—When first granted in 1909, persons of 70 years and over were given a pension of 5s. per week, providing their yearly incomes did not exceed £21. During the first twelve months after the Pensions Act came into force there were 699,352 pensioners in the United Kingdom, and the amount paid them was £8,468,128. In 1916 the Government granted an increase of 2s. 6d. per week in certain circumstances, and in the following year allowed the increase to everyone. In 1915 there were 984,131 pensions, and the bill was £12,375,561. When the 2s. 6d. increase was in full operation in 1918 the bill amounted to £16,961,018, although the number of pensions had dropped to 943,077. Recently the Government decided to increase the weekly pension to 10s.

Q.—What will the increase cost?

A.—As necessarily the means limit must be increased from £21 per annum to £42, many more people will be entitled to become pensioners of the State. It is estimated that £32,000,000 will be required to meet the bill this year. The Committee which recently reported on Old Age Pensions urged the increase to 10s. a week, and most of its members advocated that everybody, no matter what their means, should be entitled to this pension when they reached 70. This would involve a further payment of £9,000,000, making the annual bill

£11,000,000. Prominent social reformers like Arnold Rowntree and G. R. Thorne urged that the pension should be made 12s. 6d., to meet the increased cost of living, and that the age limit should be dropped to 65.

Q.—Is insurance against unemployment greatly extended under the new Bill in Britain?

A.—In Ireland there is to be practically no change, but in England and Scotland the scheme is extended to cover almost all persons falling within the health insurance of the Government. The exceptions are agriculture and domestic service, but the Minister of Labour has power to bring the exempt services within the scheme. It is estimated that about 11,750,000 people will be covered by the Bill. The additional cost to the Government will be from £3,000,000 to £4,000,000. The scheme at present in force costs the Government about £1,250,000.

Q.—Is it true that the British Government will not allow British trade unionists to go to Russia to investigate conditions there?

A.—The Trade Union Congress in December decided to send a delegation to Russia for this purpose, but the Government refused to grant passports.

Q.—What is the present occupation of Mr. Herbert Hoover, who directed relief work in Belgium?

A.—Mr. Hoover is now organising relief from America for the starving children of Europe. An effort has been made to induce him to enter the contest for the Presidency of America, but he has stated that he is not a candidate. He recently purchased a large interest in *The Washington Herald*.

Q.—Is the Pope actively supporting the fund for the starving children of Europe?

A.—Besides arranging for collections for this fund throughout the world, the Pope has contributed a personal gift of £3000.

Q.—What is the attitude of Italy to the relief of distress in the enemy country, Austria?

A.—The Italian Red Cross is actively engaged in succouring the starving people of Austria. Large numbers of Austrian children have been taken to Italy to enjoy the hospitality of more fortunate homes there.

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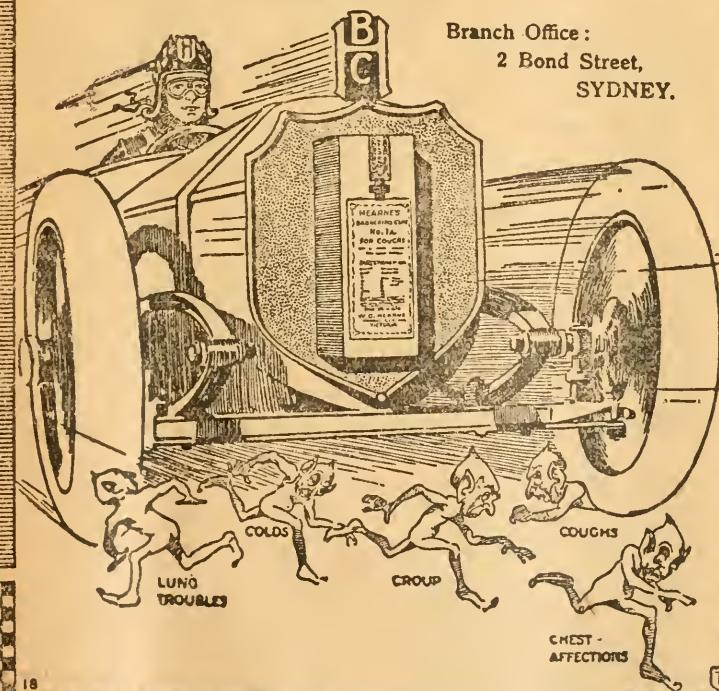
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Occupation.....

Q.—Why do Americans object to Article X. of the Peace Treaty, when it merely says the League shall "advise" about the measures to be taken against a recalcitrant State?

A.—Unfortunately this important article has been faultily translated from the French to the English text. The French text uses the word "aviser," which means to discuss and determine the course to be taken—not simply to advise. The difference between the French and English versions has been the occasion of much disputing in the United States. The French text reads: "Les membres de la Societe des Nations s'engagent à respecter et à maintenir contre toute agression extérieure l'intégrité territoriale et l'indépendance politique présente de tous les membres de la Société. En cas d'agression de menace ou de danger d'agression, le conseil avise aux moyens d'assurer l'exécution de cette obligation."

Q.—What was the final decision of the British Parliament in regard to the deportation of Germans?

A.—The general rule for deportation was defeated. The House of Commons favoured deportation, except in cases where special exemption was granted. The House of Lords stood unanimously for allowing the subjects of late-enemy countries to remain unless cause were shown within two months why they should be deported. The two Houses disputed over the matter, but in the end the Commons accepted the Lords' amendment.

Q.—Will Sinn Fein have the support of the large number of Labour members elected at the recent municipal elections in Ireland?

A.—The general sympathies of Labour in Ireland are with the Sinn Fein Republicans. In some parts of Ulster the two parties worked in active alliance against the Unionists.

Q.—Does the Bolshevik Russian Government admit carrying on an Imperialist campaign of agitation in India and the Near East?

A.—An interesting reply to this accusation—which was published with startling headline in the daily papers—has

come from Radek, one of Lenin's chief lieutenants, who was formerly Russian Soviet ambassador to Berlin. He admitted that emissaries from the East, Far, Middle and Near, could be found at Moscow. That was only natural. It had happened so after the 1905 revolution in Russia. The present causes of unrest in Asia were the hardships arising from the World War, and the hostility of Persia and other countries to domination by the *Entente* Allies. "We sympathise with these Eastern peoples," he said, "but we go no further." He stated that the Soviet Government was not conducting revolutionary propaganda in India, and was willing to give guarantees to Britain against using either money or agents for such purposes. He said the talk of the Northcliffe press about a Red invasion of India was merely an insincere vilifying of Soviet Russia. "Nevertheless," he said, "if the Northcliffe press succeeds in misleading English opinion into war against Russia, then what is now a fantasy may easily become a reality."

Q.—What happened to the funds left in the hands of the Belgian Relief Commission when the war ended?

A.—The balance remaining, amounted to at least 120,000,000 francs, may realise as much as 150,000,000 francs. This sum Mr. Hoover, on behalf of the Commission, has presented to the Belgian Government to be used in restoring and extending University education in Belgium; 20,000,000 francs are to be given to the four Universities of Brussels, Gand, Liege and Louvain, whilst 60,000,000 francs are to be spent at the discretion of the Government for the higher education of young people in poor circumstances. This munificent gift has been welcomed with enthusiasm throughout Belgium and is regarded as yet another proof of the so often manifested friendship of the Americans for the Belgians. In an eloquent letter of acknowledgment addressed to Mr. Hoover, the Prime Minister, M. Leon Delacroix, paid tribute to the magnificent work done by the Relief Commission and asserted that Mr. Hoover had well earned the title, "*Ami de la Nation belge.*"

Q.—Are the present high prices of cloth in Australia justified by the rise in English prices?

A.—Woollen cloth that was sold in England at 5s. 7d. a yard before the war now costs 25s. to 30s. The President of the Huddersfield Chamber of Commerce has stated that wool tops which cost 13s. 6d. per pound in December could have been bought early in 1919 (under the price-control system) at 6s. 5d., while the pre-war price was from 2s. 6d. to 3s. 9d.

Q.—Have war pensions been increased in the United States?

A.—In place of pensions the United States established a war-service insurance scheme, the Government providing a minimum insurance to which the soldier could add as he wished. Congress recently passed a measure to increase the payments on behalf of the Government from £6 to £16 per month. The estimated cost to the Government of this increase was £16,000,000 a year.

Q.—Has inoculation against influenza proved successful?

A.—Dr. Sir Thomas Horder, addressing the British Medical Association in London on the subject recently, said: "In the present state of our knowledge, the available materials for preventive inoculation against influenza are not very convincing in regard to their specific value. And yet when I am asked my advice on the matter, I generally favour the use of a prophylactic vaccine, not because I think it is a specific preventive—like typhoid vaccine in typhoid fever, for example—but because there is some reason to consider that a certain degree

(Continued on page 281.)

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NOTES.

- (a) Ethelred the Unready.
- (b) Merchant of Venice.

ESPERANTO NOTES.

Dr. Charles Sarolea, professor of French language and literature at Edinburgh University, speaking recently on Esperanto and the League of Nations, said that hatred of various kinds—racial, religious, political and national—had been intensified by the war, and the most tangible and visible expression of these hatreds was linguistic diversities. "We have twenty or more nations, which refuse to understand each other simply because they insist on speaking a different language. They have made of language a fetish. . . . It has been one of the paradoxes of this war, that, although the Peace Conference took place in France, in Paris and Versailles, the French language has ceased to be the one sole language of diplomacy. And if the claims of French as a national language cannot be accepted as a matter of practical policy, you will find that there are nine or ten different claims." Persons of education, who belong to the smaller nationalities, are obliged to learn several languages. What a waste of mental and moral energy; what opportunities for misunderstanding and for friction!

"How is this problem," asks Professor Sarolea, "going to be solved? Only one experiment has been tried with any measure of real success. It will be to the eternal credit and merit of Esperanto that long before this war, long before those political and linguistic differences became so acute as they are to-day, it anticipated this. I know all the difficulties that this practical experiment has had to meet in the past, and will have to encounter in the future. I know all the arguments that can be used against either an artificial language in general, or against Esperanto in particular, but I also know that the arguments in favour of Esperanto are much more weighty than the arguments against. . . . I do not know, honestly and without exaggeration, many better disciplines for the mind quite apart from any practical use, than the study of Esperanto. Esperanto is, from the first rule to the last, applied logic, and apart from the logical quality there are the literary and musical qualities."

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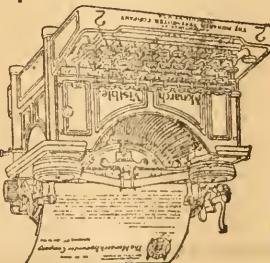
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Yesterday, after lunch, I had just slipped into my new blue one-piece dress and was getting ready to go down to town, when the door bell rang, and who should it be but Janet Whitelaw, whom I hadn't seen for nearly six months.

The first thing Janet exclaimed, as she stood in the door, was: "Oh! Ellen, tell me where in the world did you get that lovely dress?"

"I made it all myself."

"But, Ellen!" she fairly gasped; "made it yourself. How—when—where did you ever learn? You never used to sew a stitch!"

"I know I didn't; but I made this dress just the same, and, not only this, but so many other things, that I have more clothes than I ever had before."

"Well, tell me this minute how you did it."

So I went to the wardrobe, and came back with an armful of dainty things that made Janet stare in astonishment.

"To begin with," I said, "this dress I have on is a reproduction of an exclusive model I saw in a shop window, marked £9. It cost me exactly 64/- for the materials, and I think they are really of better quality. And here's an evening dress that Jack says is the prettiest thing I ever wore. I copied it from a fashion magazine, and the materials cost exactly 35/-. Then I have made two house dresses, four aprons, a taffeta petticoat and underclothing, that I have saved more than £2 on."

"But you haven't told me yet," insisted Janet, "where you learned."

"Well, then, listen, and you shall hear. About four months ago I read in a newspaper about a school of dressmaking that had developed a wonderful new plan through

which one could learn Dressmaking at home in spare time. I began to think how much it would mean if I could make my own clothes; so I wrote to them. They explained everything free, and told just exactly how you could learn every step, even though you had no experience whatever. Why, think, Janet, more than 8000 women and girls have already learned to make their own clothes by this new plan. You see, it doesn't make the slightest difference where you live—in city, small towns and in the country—all are learning with the same success as if they were together in a class-room. Isn't it wonderful?

"Well, I took it up, and I soon realised how easy it is to learn without leaving home. Every step is explained so clearly, and there are hundreds of illustrations that show just exactly what to do."

But Janet broke in right here: "Ellen, this is wonderful! Tell me how I can learn all about it myself."

So I told her that if she would send to the Associated School of Dressmaking, Sydney, and would tell them that she was most interested in learning Dressmaking at Home, that they would send her by return post, absolutely without charge, a copy of their interesting publication, "How to Learn Dressmaking Quickly and Easily." And if you, my dear reader, would like to know more about how you can have more and prettier clothes and save money, as I am doing, I suggest that you, too, write promptly, being sure to mention *Stead's Review*, and state whether you are Mrs. or Miss. SEND NO MONEY; simply send your name and address NOW, to the ASSOCIATED SCHOOL OF DRESSMAKING, No. 1, Canberra House, 295-8 Elizabeth Street, SYDNEY.

DOES MY LADY KNOW THAT-



From Paris comes word that dressy hand bags for street and reception uses are made up in gorgeous metallic brocades? It is a fancy of some French designers to make such individual hand bags to match a wrap or a dress. They are variously mounted in frames of silver, tortoise-shell, or even gold.

Chic and novel day dresses are combining accordion pleated skirts with body parts more or less in the basque-blouse and chemise effects, of contrasted material or colour? One youthful dress of this style has a black soft satin skirt, and its upper part of an old rose silk ribbed jersey with black satin piping around the bottom hem, and the sleeve ends.

Nearly all the new evening frocks are flounced, one way or another? Some show very wide, gathered flounces which reach from waist to hem; others are arranged in sets of graduated flounces made of lace, chiffon, tulle, taffetas, and even velvet. But of these, lace takes first place, especially black lace.

The bouffant style is easily arranged with any dress, since the sash can be tied or looped over the hips to gain the effect, or two or three frills will give the bouncy appearance, or a long tunic can be tucked up to gain the width now considered correct; while yet another method is a cascade piece?

A frock made up of many little bits is seldom attractive, and the real charm of a beautiful frock, whether for day or evening wear, lies in the expression of simplicity?

The increased cost of gloves doubtless will stimulate greater care in putting them on and taking them off. Never pull your gloves on by the wrist, for then they will split at the base of the palm. Work the fingers on gently before putting in the thumb, and pull down at the back. Do not try to adjust the fingers by hammering between them. After a careful manipulation, if the gloves do not fasten, take them off and stretch the lower portion a little. Powder the hands occasionally before putting gloves on, and, in purchasing, see that they are stretched, powdered and breathed into to warm the leather. A satisfactory way to take off gloves is to gently pull out the fingers, turn the backs half way down, and then slip them off. Needless to say, gloves squashed in purses or carried around in the hand are short-lived. All gloves—silk and fabric as well as kid—should be cared for similarly.

Pianos should always be dusted with cheese-cloth rather than chamois? Cheese cloth, being porous, catches the dust and holds it; chamois, being dense, grinds the small particles into the varnish. When a new piano becomes soiled from finger-prints, or blue and gummy from humidity, after dusting it with cheese-cloth, go over it with chamois wet in lukewarm water and wrung dry. When the polish of your piano begins to dim, give it an occasional rubbing with some good furniture polish. Test its fitness upon a less important piece than the piano. After applying the polish and rubbing off with a dry cloth, place the palm flat against the surface. If the imprint of the hand remains, the polish is not good, because it is too oily; if it disappears quickly, the polish may be used on any fine furniture with satisfactory results.

A greasy, oily skin in summer is probably the most common ailment with many women? Try bathing the face with $5\frac{1}{2}$ ounces of rose-water, $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce

of alcohol, and $\frac{1}{2}$ dram of boric acid, if this is your difficulty.

If sunburn refuses to yield, apply to the skin, with a bit of cotton, a mixture made by squeezing the juice of one lemon into one cupful of sweet milk, allowing it to curdle. A buttermilk bath is soothing, washing the milk off after half an hour. And, for more severe cases, fuller's earth and rose water ought to effect good results.

If you perspire excessively, try a wine glass of ammonia in ten gallons of water, afterwards using a good toilet water on the body or a lotion made of 4 ounces of vinegar, 4 ounces of tincture of benzoin, and 4 ounces tincture of roses.

A camphorated bath is exceedingly refreshing, and has a stimulating value? Drop into the water 1 ounce of cologne, $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce of tincture of benzoin, and $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce tincture of camphor.

When making jelly use a silver fork with four tines for testing it. When cooked, the jelly will fill all the spaces. The fork must be washed and cooled after each test.

To make apple jam, take 3 lbs. brown sugar, 2 cups water, 3 lbs. apples, 2 lemons, $\frac{3}{4}$ oz. ginger root. Boil sugar and water five minutes. Add apples, pared, cored and chopped, the grated rind and juice of the lemons, and the ginger root grated. There should be about six tablespoons grated ginger root. Boil mixture twenty minutes, or until clear and thick, stirring frequently. Pour into sterile glasses. When firm, cover with melted paraffin and with tin cover. Label and put away until needed. This makes about eight glasses.

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FINANCIAL NOTES.

THE MARKET.

The course of dealing in stocks and shares and the scope afforded the promoter still compel recognition. No observer of the restraint imposed by the community on itself during the five long and weary years of the war, imagined that with peace would have come an orgy of speculation. Yet, even to the sore-stricken dealers of the Berlin Bourse, the spirit extended, and the State there had to intervene to impose precautions. In New York the banks took a hand to check Wall Street operators by curtailing advances, but London, true to its old policy of freedom, has allowed speculation to have full fling, just as it has, most wisely, let the exchanges fight out their own future. In Australia the Hampton Plains boom could not have matured had not London taken a hand; and it is a thousand pities it has done so, save that it is axiomatic than when speculation is most active mining revives. If out of this gamble Australia gets one, two or three good mines, the ultimate gain will probably be a plus, rather than a minus factor. The rush for shares of the Badak tin group, and the booming of the Western Australian floatations all have meant that the attention of the people has been diverted from genuine to speculative risks. For that reason, the strongest warning must be uttered that there is no more delusive axiom than that "to speculate means to accumulate." To do so is to feed brokers, to assist promoters, and to run the course lined by Hogarth in the Rakes Progress. Looking at the various sections of the market, it is apparent that shrewd people are still buying war stocks free of taxation which, as should be recollected, include not only the Commonwealth, but State securities. The latter really are the most attractive goods in the parcel. Bank shares keep firm, but with little attention, and there is nothing outstanding in the group of industrials for the general investor to worry over.

The announcement that the British Government may get on to the trail of

the war profiteer is to hand. Australia, as a rule, hardly requires a lead in order to walk in the same pathway. But if Britain intends to cut such a track, what will happen here? So, to the investor, the pleasant problem is presented of whether he considers he is entitled to take as his viewpoint what is happening in Conservative England, or to consider whether the absolute individualism of the Australian will after all allow the registered company profiteer to go on unscathed.

WHEAT AND WOOL.

The situation in respect to both these primary products from everyone's point of view, is most unsatisfactory. Wool is the great asset of Australia. Climatic conditions and broad acres enable this country to be the dominating factor in the world's markets. Australia has put itself in the hands of the Imperial authorities over the disposal of this staple product, but the news from London regarding the profits snapped by Bradford and other British manufacturing centres out of the control so extended, has unnerved everyone. What is asked for is a balance sheet, and a statement of how such profits have been permitted. Australia is to share in any gains that may accrue to the British Government from the control it has had over wool. That being so, the point on which elucidation is required is, how far will the people of Australia benefit. Surely the Federal Government ought to find this out, seeing the important bearing the issue has on the finances of the country. To no one is the subject of greater interest than to the holder of shares in pastoral companies. The drought has been disastrous, but its effect will be tremendously mitigated if it is found that the price of wool, plus the profits to come from the British Government, means that losses are more than made up from these two sources. No wonder shares of pastoral and pastoral finance companies are strong.

As to wheat the situation is clearer, but elements of doubt still predominate.

The amusing fact is that Mr. Peake's speech in Adelaide, when he frightened the wits out of the holders of South Australian "B" script, while suiting the book of certain speculative factors, destroyed others. Consequently, the interest which was being awakened in wheat scrip was snuffed out. So now it would take an Archimedian lever to swing it into prominence. Dealers vainly try to fathom whether South Australia "B" scrip is to get a 6d. dividend, or to ascertain if the "B" pool is short of cash. They cannot assert whether the "C" pool is safe, and they are unable to establish a comparison between its probabilities, and those of the "D" pool. So the scrip of the one sags, and that of the other hardens, or *vice versa*. What is in doubt is how far the one pool is dependent on the other, and how far the 1,500,000 ton contract with the British Government, will affect the receipts of the "D" pool. It is said that some of the most astute wheat dealers are advising everyone that the "D" wheat is a long way over its intrinsic worth, but some of these same gentry were keen for South Australian "B" at 6½d. to 7½d. The essential, at the moment, is a cold-blooded financial statement, respecting the "C" and "D" pools, so as to cut out from the area of dealing all men except the producer. What remains is the "E" pool. Its future seems to be assured, because of the price of wheat abroad, the general condition of the grain, State relaxation in respect to sales, and the price the people of New South Wales and Queensland are prepared to pay for their flour and wheat. Still, what has to be confessed is that the community is very restive whenever it sees local prices pile up to meet the world's parity. Apart from that, the profit to be made on "E" scrip at present prices appears to be fairly solid.

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This is the old Australian Joint Stock Bank, which once upon a time, confined

its operations mainly to New South Wales and Queensland, but of late years has travelled afield to other States, where it seems to be rooting fairly well, even in these times of intense competition. The progress made is illustrated by the following comparison:—

June	Assets £	Deposits, etc. £	Profits £
1910 ..	5,308,595	.. 4,338,312	.. 11,670
1914 ..	6,237,731	.. 4,976,119	.. 26,145
1917 ..	6,798,398	.. 5,464,980	.. 31,275
1919 ..	11,050,535	.. 9,635,500	.. 49,759

A step in the right direction was when the directors decided to buy the City Bank of Sydney. The policy of the board is as it should be, to clear out unnecessary country premises and property, and, at the same time, to build up reserves. These had to be re-created as the result of the reconstruction, and now stand at £160,000. In addition, the board is progressing in wiping out its liability in respect to the four per cent. inscribed deposits, of which it is under agreement to set apart £30,000 per annum for the redemption of such deposits. At the end of the June term, advances etc., were £6,815,596, against £3,754,889 in 1910. The expansion since 1917 is over £2,180,000. The dividend is at five per cent. per annum, consequently profits amounting to £59,931 annually are required to meet this dividend. To add one per cent. to the dividend would take £11,986. The profit for the June six months of 1918 was £49,759. This was after paying £29,092 interest in the inscribed deposits, so that the dividend for the half-year was comfortably provided for, and £15,000 was added to the reserve. In view of the teachings of the past, it is certain that care has been taken to create inner reserves, and that the bank can show liquid assets of 9s. 1d. in the £ of liabilities to the public is also satisfactory.

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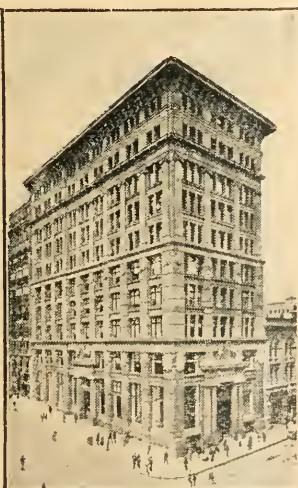
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CATECHISM.

(Continued from page 276.)

of protection is conferred against serious grades of catarrh and secondary infections, and because the more of such experiments there are carried out with care and with proper records, the better for the advance of our knowledge." He said "the drugs commonly taken had "psychic value," but little more; that is, their value depended on the imagination of the patient. He was doubtful about the value of the fumigants used, but had no doubt about the value of a free current of fresh air, both in assisting the patient and in preventing the infection of others.

Q.—Is it a fact that Victor Berger, the American Socialist Congressman, ejected from the House for disloyalty, was again elected?

A.—Yes. Although only one Congressman had voted against unseating him, he gained a majority of nearly 5000 votes when he sought re-election. His opponent represented the united forces of the Republican and Democratic parties.

Q.—To what do you attribute Berger's new victory?

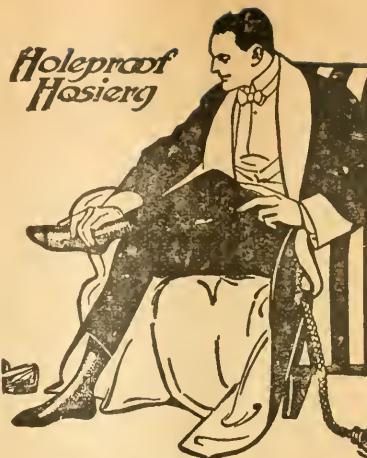
A.—Being the first Socialist ever sent to Congress, he could rely on the socialist vote, which is strong in his constituency of Milwaukee. The German-American voters also doubtless gave him their support. But it was remarked that he gained a majority even in Anglo-American wards. Hearst's newspaper at Milwaukee attributed his victory largely to the popular spirit of protest against militarist repression.

Q.—Are Socialists as well as Communists being deported from the United States?

A.—Socialists as such are not condemned under the general order for deportation, but doubtless many who are not professed communists will be accounted as undesirable. The feeling against the Socialist Party is shown by the action of the New York State Legislature in expelling its five Socialist members. The vote in favour of refusing them their seats was 140 to 6.

Q.—Who are the "alien reds" of whom thousands are being deported from the United States?

A.—Many of the men are members of the Communist Party, or the Commun-



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ist Labour Party. Membership in either party is sufficient to condemn any person to expulsion. The Communist parties are overwhelmingly alien in membership, and, therefore, have little voting strength. Most of the deportees are of Slav race.

Q.—Were the war-time profits of the English coal-mining companies very high?

A.—Their gross profits increased to more than three times the average of pre-war years. But the Excess Profits Tax and the cost of the Coal Control left them with comparatively small gains. Official figures for over a thousand companies showed average profits of 1s. per ton for five years to 1913; in 1917 the profit was 2s. 2½d per ton, and in 1918, 3s. 6½d. The companies were permitted to retain only 5 per cent. of the excess, 15 per cent. going to the Coal Controller, and 80 per cent. to Excess Profits Tax. Nevertheless, some of the companies showed substantial net profits and were able to pay good dividends. Share values advanced, but they receded somewhat in consequence of the Sankey award of last March, giving the miners shorter hours and higher wages.

Q.—Were the prices of colliery shares affected by the British Government's limitation of coal profits?

A.—Yes. A drop followed the announcement of the limitation, though it is to be of only a few months' duration. Financial papers published very hostile criticism of the measure as removing inducement to increase the output at a time when there is dire need of larger supplies. The royalty owners are not affected by the limitation.

Q.—Is the decrease in Britain's coal output as serious as it appeared some months ago?

A.—A complete recovery has been made from the decline recorded in July and August. The yield for the week ending December 20th last was the highest for six months—4,910,106 tons. In the first week in August only 2,642,895 tons were produced, and, as this decrease followed the shortening of hours, there were many pessimistic predictions that Britain's coal for use and export

would be diminished by half. The predictions have fortunately not come true.

Q.—Who was responsible for the suppression of the news of the Amritsar affair for nine months after it occurred?

A.—Apparently the authorities in India prevented the facts from reaching England. Mr. Montagu, Secretary of State for India, told the House of Commons in December that he himself had not known the facts till he saw the reports in the newspapers. He had published at the time such information as he had received. This information was contained in three lines: "At Amritsar on Sunday the mob defied the proclamation forbidding public meetings. Firing ensued, and 200 casualties occurred." This brief statement was not even true. General Dyer estimates the casualties at ten times the number stated.

Q.—Was General Dyer in any way justified in shooting down the people as he did in Amritsar?

A.—Most Anglo-Indians would certainly exonerate him. It has always been held in India that if the General at Meerut in May, 1857, had acted with vigour there would have been no Indian Mutiny. So every military officer since then has been taught to act fearlessly, vigorously and mercilessly on the first appearance of revolt. Almost every European in India believes General Dyer saved the country at Amritsar. In their opinion he could have done nothing else. He had only twenty-five native sepoys, and Amritsar with half a million inhabitants was in open rebellion, refusing to obey any order of the military or civil officials. The country was denuded of troops who were concentrating on the frontier, to oppose an Afghan army which was advancing on India. If communications—the railway passing through Amritsar, Lahore and Gujranwala—could not be kept open how were the 200,000 troops on the frontier to be fed and munitioned? It must not be forgotten, too, that things were in a most critical condition in India, and the Territorials were in a state of semi-mutiny because they were not allowed to return home. The Europeans in India ask what would have happened had General Dyer not acted as he did?

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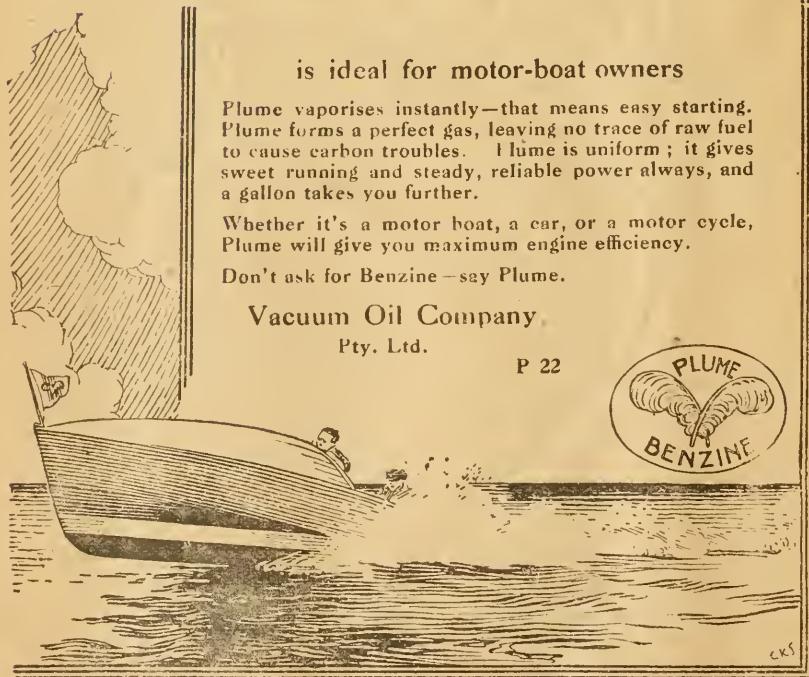
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MOTOR NOTES.

Driving, to the experienced motorist, resolves itself into a series of movements which to him have become mechanical. Driving, that is to say, has become a habit, and the operations of a car, gear shifting, braking, and the like, are accompanied by little thinking.

It is characteristic of a good driver that he is careful; he drives slowly compared with the beginner, goes down steep grades in second or even first speed, turns slowly, and starts and stops gradually. He puts safety before speed, although actually he can drive far more quickly than the tyro if he wishes so to do.

It is interesting to notice how drivers hold their steering wheels, for, as a rule, this gives a good indication of their ability. The best drivers say that the wheel should be held so that the hands indicate 20 minutes past 10, assuming the wheel to be the face of a clock. That is to say, the left hand is at 10 and the right hand at 4. The beginner usually grips the wheel on opposite sides; the lazy driver holds it at the bottom only. When learning to drive, it is just as well to do things the right way.

Many drivers use their brakes unnecessarily when going down a grade. There are two forms of resistance which can be put to use to retard the motion of a car—the brakes and the engine when it is not firing. The greater the engine speed when the engine is not firing the greater the resistance it offers, so that if the gears are in second speed the car will roll down a hill slower than in high. In first speed the speed will be still less. Brakes should not be used when descending grades unless the car

travels too fast in first speed; when that happens the brakes may be called upon merely as auxiliaries.

Quite a number of drivers insist upon their cars taking every hill on high, with the result that the engine simply knocks until the crest is reached. There is no need for this; they should shift to their next gear before the engine labours. It is a mistake to assume that it is better for the car if a steep grade can be taken in high. The slower you ascend the better it will be for the rear tyres; at any rate, on a rough road.

The application of the brakes is usually considered the easiest of all operations in a car, but quite often you may ride in one in which the driver stops so hastily, that you are almost thrown out. The brakes should be applied slowly and evenly—there should be no sudden stopping or slowing down. Some drivers, too, seem desperately anxious to obtain a speed of 30 miles or so in a few seconds. Starting should be slow, and the gear changes made leisurely and without clashing. It is just as easy to drive carefully as recklessly, and it certainly pays, as your car lasts far longer.

In overtaking cars on city streets too much certainty is often placed in the driver ahead. While it would be a very pleasing thing to be able to know just what a driver is going to do, it is nevertheless much safer to assume he is going to do the wrong thing. Therefore in overtaking a car leave sufficient room so that a quick turn can be made to avoid the other car if necessary. Especially at night is it advisable to take extra care. The argument after the smash-up, does

little good if someone is injured: the time to do the thinking about what should have been done is before anything happens.

Although thirty years ago the motor car was practically unknown in America—or, indeed, anywhere—to-day no fewer than 7,700,000 cars are registered in the United States. As there are approximately 27,000,000 families in that country, this means that there is a motor car of some sort or other for every $3\frac{1}{2}$ families. Taking the States individually, we find that California has a car for every 6.2 of its people. South Dakota has one for every 7 people, and Nebraska one for each 6.43 of its inhabitants. The State of Iowa, however, has a car for every 6 persons living there!

It is estimated that there will be over 10,000,000 cars in use in the United States by the end of 1921. Even assuming that the saturation point in the use of cars is reached with this figure, the annual replacements will require no fewer than 2,000,000 cars per year, and this alone means that the automobile industry will have to be conducted on a gigantic scale. The production in 1919 was 1,600,000 cars.

We have been asked which is the cheapest car produced in the United States. This is the Spacke, a two-cylinder roadster, which sells for 295 dols. The Ford two-seater runabout sells for

500 dols. The Chevrolet, two-seater roadster, sells for 715 dols. These are the cheapest cars in America at present. The most expensive American car is the Locomobile, six-cylinder, semi-touring car, which accommodates five persons, its price being 11,500 dols. The Rolls-Royce sells in the United States for 16,000, dols., and the Delage cars, which are now being received from France, sell at 14,000 dols. Other expensive American cars are the Pierce-Arrow, which sells for 9250 dols.; the Owen-Magnetic, which costs 7500 dols., and the Brewster, the price of which is 8600 dols. The most expensive Hudson sells in America for 3776 dols.

What quantity production means is well illustrated by the statistics of the car output in France, England and America, per worker employed. The American worker, thanks to his superior machinery equipment, is able to average seven cars per year, whereas, the French worker, and his British confrere, turn out only one car per annum. As wages is one of the biggest items in factory work, it is not surprising that American cars can be placed on the market at a far lower price than those made in Europe.

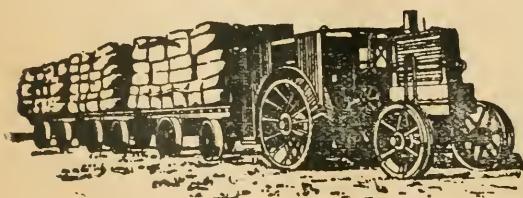
A useful device which can be fixed on most cars, is a drop shutter inside the door next to the driver. To this the tools are fastened, thus making them readily available for use when required.

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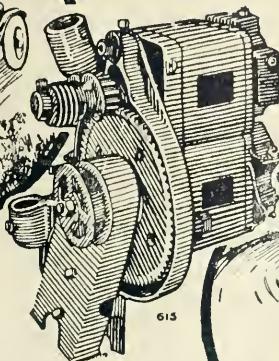
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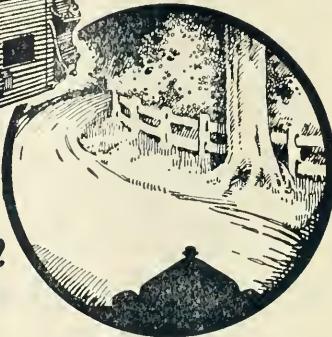
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